

SECONDARY RENEWAL : "Secondary Education: The Future"
and IMPLICATIONS FOR IMPLEMENTATION

by

M

RUTH RADFORD, B.A. DIP. ED.

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Statement

This dissertation contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other higher degree or graduate diploma in any tertiary institution and to the best of my knowledge and belief, the dissertation contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the dissertation.

Ruth Radford

ABSTRACT

This study examines the Tasmanian Education Department's policy document, Secondary Education: The Future. It seeks to place the succinct outline of principles into the wider context of local, national and international debate on secondary education. The study compares the finished document to the earlier editions, particularly those of January 1987, and the Discussion Paper of 1986 and refers to comments made by local educationalists during the discussion phase.

The study suggests that we need to examine the sort of society we want our children to create in a world which is increasingly stressing the connections between education and economic life and giving emphasis to instrumental and mechanistic approaches. Governments' stress on quality and excellence have also emanated, in some cases from limited educational views. These terms are examined together with those of equity, effectiveness and continuity.

The policy document argues for the central notions of fields of knowledge and experience and the competencies. These concepts are placed in their educational contexts and the practical implications of these curriculum ideas are discussed. The nature of adolescence is changing and the study refers to investigations of adolescence which give depth to the section on the student in Secondary Education: The Future. The study claims that a clearer statement on learning should be part of the policy document.

A central thesis of the study is that teachers are learners. The ideas on teaching, management and professional development in the policy document are placed into the context of educational discussion. The regularities of school life which detract from the potentiality of collegiality are described. The role of the Principal and the lack of reference to the significance of this role in the policy document are noted.

Schools are part of a network of communities. This network is discussed together with the concept of partnership. The need for schools to be more integrated with their communities for the encouragement of life long learning is explored.

Throughout this study reference is made to practical implications which flow from the statements of principles. The final chapter explores general principles about implementation and change which may be extracted from the literature but which were not part of the original document or in literature accompanying the release of the document to schools. The study maintains that these principles re-emphasise the need for teachers, Principals, support staff and administrators to accept the role of learner and collaborate in the development of evolutionary policies for self-renewing schools. Such schools are needed to guide education into the twenty-first century.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Secondary Education: The Future was officially launched as a policy document of the Education Department of Tasmania in May 1987. Ten years had passed since the last state report on secondary education, Secondary Education in Tasmania, (Scott Report) 1977. The 1987 document is one of a long line of recent reports and books focusing on secondary education. Internationally there has been considerable concern expressed about the secondary area over the past decade. Many of the reports, books and articles from the United Kingdom and the United States of America will be referred to in this study. In Australia the 1980's has seen the following reports published by the states: Education and Change in South Australia: Final Report (Keeves Report) 1982; Education in Western Australia (Beazley Report) 1984; Education 2000: Issues and Options for the Future of Education in Queensland, 1985; Ministerial Review of Post-Compulsory Schooling, Report (2 volumes) (Blackburn Report), 1985; and Future Directions of Secondary Education (Swan and McKinnon Report), 1985, and by the Commonwealth Government, Quality of Education in Australia (QERC Report) 1985. Hence Tasmania is the last state of Australia to publish a policy document on secondary education. The Commonwealth Schools Commission followed the local document with one of its own, In The National Interest, 1987.

The impetus to publish a local policy document on secondary education came not only from the pressure of the international and national reports but also by the decision of the local certification body to make some changes to the certification process. In August 1984 the Schools Board of Tasmania published a discussion paper, "The Future of Certification in Tasmania". This outlined possible changes to the processes of designing courses, assessment and certification leading senior departmental officers to the view that a review of the purposes and curriculum of secondary schools should also be undertaken. This view was

influenced in part by the belief that changes to secondary education were more likely to be implemented if they were accompanied by structural changes such as those proposed by the Schools Board. The argument for this position is put in a paper by Michael Kirst and Gail Meister, "Turbulence in American Secondary Schools: What Reforms Last?" They discuss the difficulty of accomplishing lasting reform commenting that "implementation is an awesome task" (P11). They note, however, that some reforms do appear to last and "leave a long-term deposit at the school level" (op. cit.) Kirst and Meister maintain that such reforms entail three crucial attributes: new structures; new constituencies, that is specialised personnel who form a professional group in favour of the reform; and easily accessible evidence of compliance, that is are easily monitored. They sum up,

"Of reforms that will be implemented, those that create new organisational structures and new constituencies and are amenable to easy monitoring - while staying within cost constraints - are more likely to endure."
(p34)

Tasmania's educators were concerned that their reforms endure hence the policy document was tied to the Schools Board certification proposals, notably the common Tasmanian Certificate of Education linking grades 9 to 12, the introduction of criterion-based assessment and the incorporation of the competencies into course objectives. In May the Minister for Education, Peter Rae, launched both Secondary Education: The Future and the Tasmanian Certificate of Education. The implementation of both has become known as "Secondary Renewal".

Once the decision to proceed with the writing of a policy document was made it was decided to gather information relevant to a review from a cross section of people including parents, members of the community, students and teachers. The first major step in this process was a centenary conference held in September 1985. The conference focus was the future of secondary education and was

attended by over 200 people from most sections of the Education Department including parents and students. The key speakers included Emeritus Professor, Peter Karmel; Dr. Peter Ellyard, Director, Ministry of Technology, South Australia; Mr. Phillip Chandler, Tasmanian Development Authority; and Professor Phillip Hughes of the University of Tasmania.

A comprehensive selection of material was put together as prior reading for the conference (see Bibliography). This included information on the changes being undertaken in other Australian states and in Europe, overviews of the economic and technological changes occurring in the major OECD countries and the implications for education.

After the conference the issues raised and the views expressed were collated. These views provided the basis for a discussion paper, "Secondary Education: The Future" published in March 1986. The writing of this paper was lead by Martyn Cove, Executive Director of Curriculum Services, but involved the input of numerous others in the central services, schools and from the University, who were invited to respond to several drafts between December 1985 and February 1986.

Seven thousand copies of the discussion paper were distributed and comments were invited. In each region a regional support group of teachers was established to assist with the discussion phase. These groups visited schools, usually in pairs, and talked with teacher and parent groups about the Discussion Paper, answered questions, and encouraged people to respond to the Director General with their views. These groups formed the basis for constituencies which Kirst and Meister nominated as crucial for successful implementation.

During 1986 the University, in liaison with the Education Department through the auspices of the Centre for Continuing Education of Teachers built on the extremely successful Curriculum workshop in 1985. Workshops were held in each region and groups of teachers met to discuss secondary education and to devise

action plans for school improvement. In some instances small groups of teachers from the same school were involved in discussion and planning. These workshops were co-ordinated by Professor Phillip Hughes from the University and Mr. John Docker, Principal Education Officer of the Centre for Continuing Education of Teachers.

Also during 1986 two major conferences were held to discuss issues arising from the Discussion Paper. The first in June was for Principals of all High, District High, Special Schools and Secondary Colleges and the second for Vice Principals was held in July. The Principals and Vice Principals isolated the following topics for discussion:

- . professional development;
- . certification;
- . assessment;
- . competencies;
- . methodology;
- . organisation of curriculum;
- . streaming;
- . individualisation in curriculum;
- . unitisation of curriculum;
- . negotiating the curriculum;
- . study of work and daily life;
- . study of foreign languages;
- . transition;
- . provision for students with special needs;
- . girls and secondary education;
- . disruptive behaviour;
- . provision for students in rural and isolated areas; and
- . parents and the community.

The debates and opinions from these conferences were published in a document, Moving On designed to foster further discussion of the issues in the Discussion Paper by staff in schools.

Once all the views on the Discussion Paper were received the paper was revised through several drafts. Again the several drafts were circulated for comment and advice.

The process of seeking information, despite being called "an extensive process of consultation" (Preface, Secondary Education: The Future) did not reach far into schools. Most teachers appear to perceive the document as a top-down policy statement. This is in part because little discussion of the Discussion Paper or the summary of issues discussed in Moving On appear to have taken place in schools. The review process itself might have used other evaluative strategies, such as those used to gather information for the Inner London Authority's Improving Secondary Schools, 1984, and Goodlad's massive The Good High School, 1984. Some attempt to find out what schools were doing, to document practice, might have gone some way to establish a more receptive climate for implementation, and would have provided a framework for practical planning which was absent when the policy document was launched in June. On the other hand perhaps however elaborate and far-reaching the consultative process might be, the implementation stage requires extensive strategies of its own to involve people from all levels of the system - to develop constituencies.

The policy document Secondary Education: The Future is a very short statement of principles. There is no theoretical background such as was used to support the recommendations of the Scott Report in 1977, nor are there supporting statements of a practical nature drawn from schools which were used by the Hargreaves committee in Improving Secondary Schools (1984). The policy document contains twenty three principles and these are spread over four brief sections. The sections are:

- . Provision;
- . The Curriculum;
- . Students;
- . Teachers; and
- . Parents and the Community.

In addition there is an introductory section "Trends in the Economy and Society". There are strengths and weaknesses in this spare approach. The major strength is that a brief document is more likely to be read by a wide range of people. Furthermore a document which enunciates principles with succinct supporting comments provides for a measure of interpretation by each school and the inevitable adaptation of ideas at the local level. In some cases however the principles and supporting statements are, as we shall see in more detail in this study, more general than they might be, and hence less helpful to the practitioners who are seeking explicit guidance. I will also maintain that some important areas such as educating to maintain democracy in the uncertain world of the future, the domain of values, and a theory of learning are matters glossed over or ignored. The policy document is a political as well as an educational document. It had to pass through a political sieving and sifting process. Some ideas which may have stuck were given a different texture to facilitate their passage. Others were jettisoned altogether.

In another way the document is political. For most of my work on this study I used the January edition. Between January and June 1987 two concepts were added to the document at the request of cabinet, namely "competition" and "traditional values". Both are contentious terms but are woven into the fabric of the document as if there is agreement as to their meaning. No definitions are offered. These additions will be examined more closely in the next chapter.

In this study I have attempted to place each section of Secondary Education: The Future into the context of ideas and debate from which the sparer outline of principles is derived. I explore the theoretical background and comment on the conceptual gaps and ambiguities as I perceive them. Differences between the three main stages of the policy document, namely the 1986 Discussion Paper, the January edition and final May 1987 edition, are noted and discussed. Comments on the Discussion Paper by individuals and groups forwarded to the Director-General are noted. Because the

statement of principles is so spare I comment, too, on the implications for implementation, on the practical considerations which flow from the ideas which have become the policy aims of the Tasmanian Education Department.

CHAPTER 2

PLANNING FOR AN UNCERTAIN FUTURE

Many writers state that we stand on the brink of a new age - the post-industrial state. In setting the context for the future of secondary education the authors of Secondary Education: The Future have synthesised a variety of arguments and predictions, and their implications for education. Most agree that the times ahead will be characterised by change and uncertainty requiring wise long-term strategies. However, the pressing current social and economic problems have caused many influential people to seek simplistic solutions. This latter group frequently identify education as a cause of spiralling unemployment and poor trade figures and hence see in education, or more specifically secondary schooling, a publicly satisfying explanation for the present national ills. In being the source of national ills, secondary schools can also be the solution to them. The salvation, it is maintained, lies not simply in education in general but in education of specific knowledge and skills which will produce the human resources capable of developing the "high tech" future of the post industrial tomorrow. Such an education will, it is argued, ensure the economic prosperity of the nation. Others question the narrowness of this contention. They look at the bleak prospect of growing unemployment and the pressing social implications of a class of people unshaped by the roles and obligations of work and meaningful contributions to society. They wonder at our capacity to build a caring culture without the capacity to produce wealth. For these people the urgent question is how to educate the young for the maintenance and development of a caring democratic society in a potentially unjust post-industrial state.

The socio-economic environment

The most significant factors of the present socio-economic environment are the steadily growing unemployment figures together with rising inflation. Stagflation, as these twin factors are

termed, does not obey the rules noted in the preceding centuries of economic life when rising prices would signal a decrease in people unemployed and vice versa. Stagflation, which bites home to those who do the supermarket shopping and to an increasing number when they seek employment is not a phenomena we understand. As Jane Jacobs (1984) explains 'behind this terrible dilemma is a terrible theoretical void ...' (p12). But as she continues to argue, while we may not be able to understand what is happening to the prosperous countries of the world, the phenomenon is a natural one being 'the normal and ordinary condition to be found in poor and backward economies the world over.' (p25) This is not a palatable explanation for countries such as Great Britain, Canada, United States of America or Australia. Jacobs comments "It is a condition in its own right, the condition of sliding into profound economic decline" (p27).

While we may not understand globally what is happening to economics, locally we note and suffer its effects. Tasmania reflects national and world trends. Unemployment rates for both males and females are increasing. The rates are highest in the age groups 15-19 and 20-24 years, statistically one in four of the labour force in this age group is without employment. Statistics also show that the duration of unemployment has also increased. (Social Report Tasmania 1985). While most people seeking work are aiming for full-time employment a growing number are being forced to accept part-time employment. This too is a growing trend. The world of employment is changing and whole areas which offered large employment opportunities, for instance, the manufacturing industries, are disappearing. "There has been a shift from producing goods to offering services, from blue to white collar jobs, from tradesmen to technician" (Karmel, 1984, p191). The latest national educational report is blunt: "High levels of unemployment and youth unemployment, are likely to be characteristic of the medium term future, unless there is significant government intervention" (QERC, 1985, p53).

The role of education

The search for causes is understandable and the desire for simple causes which imply straight forward solutions appears to be an inherently human temptation. Hence we read:

"The first reason why the school leaver is unable to get a job is his teacher." Australian, 14 January, 1978.

It is one thing to read this view from a journalist but in America some authors of educational reports share this opinion and their rhetoric has reached new heights in encouraging alarm.

"If an unfriendly foreign power had attempted to impose on America the mediocre educational performance that exists today, we might well have viewed it as an act of war." (A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform, (1983).

Increasing mediocrity in the schools is the reason, according to such reports, for the United States being overtaken by Japan and other competitors throughout the world in commerce, industry, science and technological innovation. This decline in industrial productivity is blamed not on political, industrial, scientific or tertiary institution leaders but on public schools. This view and its extreme rhetoric has spawned admirers and emulators. Brown (1984) writes that in the "life and death struggle" with the Japanese the lack of rigour in the high school curriculum is a threat to national security. (p8).

It is unjustified to blame the public schools of America, Great Britain and Australia for national economic decline. It does not encourage measured and wise decision making to talk about "intellectual suicide" and "life and death" battles with the Japanese. Unemployment, inflation and the relative decline in international trade are not caused by deficient education systems. They are more a "result of management errors in key sectors, and of the maturation of countries that had previously been rebuilding

from destruction in World War II" (Grubb, 1984, p444). Nevertheless, it is significant that people from various walks of life, politicians, journalists, industrialists, business leaders and educationalists are drawing connections between the education provided to young people and the nation's prosperity. We ought not to criticise the connection itself but the narrow economic interpretation of it. Education is a significant part of the social and economic fabric and the unemployment situation, together with the rapidly developing technology has challenged our complacency. The rapidity of technological developments places us at a watershed. Most writers are of the opinion that we must make changes in schools to educate our young so they are adequately skilled to participate in the post-industrial state. For instance Karmel maintains:

"These shifts in industrial-occupational structure have clear implications for education. First, the expanding sectors of the economy are ones requiring a more highly qualified work force. Secondly, much future unemployment will be in service industries. These industries involve dealing with people; here, communication skills are of the first importance and require a broad general education. Thirdly, the industrial-occupational changes which will take place in response to technological progress will require a greater acquisition of scientific and technological skills, and the up-dating of skills and the re-training of many members of the work force on a continuing basis. A combination of more leisure for older people and the need to up-date skills and retrain will have a direct impact on educational provision for mature people as distinct from the young - the former to satisfy a demand for education for its own sake, the latter to maintain the educational capital of the work force." (Karmel, 1984, p192).

So for the mature it can be the pursuit of 'education for its own sake' but for the young more pragmatic considerations are paramount 'to maintain the educational capital of the work force'.

Education - for its own sake?

To what extent have educators viewed education as being 'primarily for its own sake'? To what extent has education always had links with the work force? There is a sense in which education has always been connected with employment although the nature and appropriacy of the connection was not made explicit. For instance education has helped select young people for employment by providing credentials. It has socialised young people influencing their attitudes to the world of work. More recently it has provided deliberate curriculum interventions to help students make the transition to the work force. Finally it has promoted the acquisition of specific skills which students could apply in a direct way after entering employment. However, growing unemployment undermines the promise of employment which has been implicit in the structure of schooling. In the past teachers have been able to take employment for the majority for granted. This has enabled more idealistic notions about education to predominate in aims and objectives and the important connection between schooling and life in work and beyond school to atrophy.

Educators are being shaken out of their complacency. Reports such as A Nation at Risk demand that teachers examine the extent to which they have taken the world of work for granted or even been hostile or felt superior to it. Correlli Barnett in Education for Capability (1986) argues that there has been a long history of hostility in British education towards industry and careers in industry and that the present decline in Britain's industrial capability can be dated back to before 1850 and linked closely to attitudes engendered by the British education system. He maintains that the English public school preferred to turn out Christian gentlemen to industrialists and created a model which schooling down the years has emulated. For Barnett, industrial success should be a major goal and the basic values of society will need to be adjusted if this goal is to be reached. In the same book Patrick Nuttgens continues the argument:

"The most far-reaching characteristics of education in this country in the last 150 years has been the dislike and fear of technology - and therefore of the modern world." (Burgess, 1986, p24)

Nuttgens continues by maintaining that the people developing the education system in Britain responded with fear to the new technology of the Industrial Revolution and sought to control and civilise it. In doing so the mainstream of the intellectual world moved away from the industrial world. "It was at heart a retreat, a retreat from reality" (p25). The ideas about education which were generated at that time have percolated through to the present and shape the attitudes and beliefs of today's teachers and educational decision makers in Australia as well as in Britain. The key ideas are that education is an end in itself "untouched at its highest and best by having to make a thing or earn a living", (p25) and secondly that primarily education is for the isolated and unique individual. While not necessarily made explicit these views are implicit in the organisation of schools, particularly in the prestige accorded the academically oriented pupils. For most teachers their route to the profession in the forties, fifties, sixties and seventies has been in classes which have looked with disdain on the lesser mortals who were streamed into Home Economics, commercial subjects, or worst of all, because it was closest to trade - manual arts. Perceptions, attitudes and priorities are thus shaped by powerfully influential tacit messages. Nuttgens states bluntly:

"There is in Britain, a deeply ingrained belief that practical people must be stupid. It is a belief that will not be changed by the creation of mixed ability classes in comprehensive schools. It is still assumed that the brighter will go on to further study and the dimmer will do practical tasks. But that rests upon two basic assumptions: that the brighter will always want to move away from work and that brightness is of a certain kind; that is verbal and numerical. We are trapped in a net of conventional ideas about brightness and cleverness." (29-30)

Broadening our understandings

Hence this argument maintains that in order to live productively in the post-industrial state characterised by change and uncertainty we must emphasise the individual's contribution to the prosperity of the nation and most importantly review our understanding of what constitutes brightness and cleverness. We must assess the extent to which we have inherited limited views of human intelligence. An American psychologist, Howard Gardner, contributed to this debate when he published Frames of Mind in 1984. Gardner proposes a theory of multiple intelligences suggesting that the term 'intelligence' covers a range of human competences. Gardner argues that these fall into seven classes and supports his contention by broad reading and empirical study. The range of human intelligences he proposes are: the linguistic; musical; logical-mathematical; spatial; bodily-kinesthetic; intra-personal, that is the ability to access ones own feeling life; and finally the inter-personal, that is the ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals. We will return to this theory later. At this stage it is worth noting that research into what constitutes the 'mind' and 'intelligence' is arguing for a wide range and not the narrow focus supported by conventional schooling.

In Australia too, the view is being shared that we must broaden our understanding of the place of schooling in the wider world. Peter Karmel maintains:

"We have been through a period in which there has been a tendency to under-value education, particularly non-vocational education; it is time again to assert the importance of education for work and living." (Karmel, 1984, p195)

Garth Boomer in a paper titled Towards a Productive Culture in Schools: Curriculum and the Economy (1986) argues that,

"If Australia is to have a productive culture; if Australia is to regain its former international economic status; then schooling has a major part to play in developing young people with the capacity, individually and collectively, to produce in the interests of the nation." (p1)

Boomer rejects a narrow instrumental notion that schools should prepare students for specific vocational ends but argues that the economic climate means that educationalists must reconsider the purposes of schooling and scrutinise contents, methods and goals and to take action which will enhance Australia's long-term productivity. The inheritance from the 19th century tradition which Barnett and Nuttgens explore in some detail has meant, Boomer maintains, that teachers have too often been initiating young people into the culture as somehow separate from the commerce, exchange and daily business of life. Boomer agrees with Correlli Barnett when he states: 'At the heart of any culture is its economy ... education must be, and be seen to be useful as well as satisfying and enlightening.' (p2)

Economy - the heart of culture?

Is the economy the heart of culture? Certainly many of the writers which inform the current debate would appear to believe so. For instance, Jane Jacobs in her book Cities and the Wealth of Nations, Principles of Economic Life (1984), graphically depicts the changes in fortune of many once economically energetic regions. One, Uruguay, which has some similarities to Australia in its reliance on supplying raw materials to distant cities, declines dramatically and changes from a democracy to a military dictatorship. Her argument is complex and is not simply that the economy is the heart of culture. Her thesis is that all economic life depends on cities to maintain it or change it for, "cities are the milch cows of economic life" (p106). However, without economically innovative and import replacing cities the whole quality of life as we know it declines and, as Jacob argues, the memory of it.

"If global city stagnation ever does occur, it will inexorably cause economic life everywhere to stagnate and deteriorate, and there will be no way out: no existing vivorous cities to intervene, no young cities arising while they still have opportunity to do so. If that were to happen, we may be sure that as the practice of developing city economies vanished, the memory of how the thing is done would vanish too, and after that, belief that it could be done by perfectly ordinary people would no longer be credited as a possibility. Indeed, it is not credited as a possibility in much of the world even today. ... Everywhere, all would become morosos, those without hope. We all have our nightmares about the future of economic life; that one is mine." (p134)

She argues with convincing detail that nations are inherently unstable economic systems and shows how naive it is to deny the importance of a healthy, vigorous economy. For those that hold the view of the centrality of the economy in a more simplistic extreme form the argument often proceeds as follows: The economic life of the country is in a mess because of a decline in the standards of education. The future for the country's economic life is in the new technology. Educating future citizens for this is essential for the economic well-being of the nation. Schooling then is the panacea for social and economic problems. Therefore, the argument continues, more young people should stay on at school and all should study maths, science and technologically based subjects. Other writers are profoundly critical of this stance. For instance Giroux writes:

"Within the boundaries of this discourse, schools become important only to the degree that they can provide the forms of knowledge, skills and social practices necessary to produce the labour force for an increasingly complex, technological economy. Moreover, the solutions for school reform that have emerged from the current debate are strongly shaped by the technocratic and instrumental logic that informs this model of economic reason." (Giroux, 188)

It is a question of finding a balance. In opposing the technocratic and instrumental logic it would be foolhardy to play down the importance of science, maths and technology for the future. What Giroux and others are concerned about is what they consider to be an undue emphasis on economic success devoid of a value system. (Giroux argues for the need to develop critical literacy and civic courage.) Such an emphasis suggests that economics is more important to nations and to schools than is a commitment to democratic principles. As alarmist rhetoric points us in instrumental directions it is vital to be concerned about the type of society we will have in the future. As Schumacher puts it,

"Science and engineering produce 'know-how'; but 'know-how' is nothing by itself; it is a means without an end, a mere potentiality, an unfinished sentence. 'Know-how' is no more a culture than a piano is music. Can education help us to finish the sentence, to turn the potentiality into a reality to the benefit of man?

To do so, the task of education would be, first and foremost, the transmission of ideas of value, of what to do with our lives. There is no doubt also the need to transmit know-how but this must take second place, for it is obviously somewhat foolhardy to put great powers into the hands of people without making sure that they have a reasonable idea of what to do with them. At present, there can be little doubt that the whole of mankind is in mortal danger, not because we are short of scientific and technological know-how, but because we tend to use it destructively, without wisdom. More education can help us only if it produces more wisdom.

If so much reliance is being placed in the power of educators to enable ordinary people to cope with the problems of science and technology then there must be more to education than science and technology." (Schumacher, 1979, pp79-80)

With this view the priority is not with the needs of production, not with material prosperity but with human and social concerns, with values which Schumacher is arguing must shape the decisions we make about education, and which he believes, although he does not say so in so many words, are the heart of culture.

For those who see the needs of production as the dominant consideration the line of reasoning frequently proceeds from that outlined above to include the types of schools needed to fulfil the priority of economic prosperity for the nation. For instance Professor Brown (1984) echoes many in America who are arguing that the comprehensive school system has had its day. Teaching higher order thinking skills, will require a conservative school "where students are carefully tested and ranked for learning by competence" (p9). Others in America and Britain argue for a tripartite system of schooling in which the lowest group would have a basic vocational preparation (Clare, 1986, p5). A triple track system of schooling is the logical progression for those who place the needs of production and economic prosperity as the dominant consideration. For John Clare writing in The Listener (June 1986) less able children are "victims of comprehensive education - streamed for failure in the name of equality and socialism" (p4). But to return to a system of selection for school type is not the only answer to the problem. As an author of Secondary Education: The Future has written "if education were to be redesigned to fit national production needs only, this broad specification (a triple track system) probably would suffice, but the effects would be disastrous". (Cove, 1985(b) p4)

The high tech future

Does what we can discern about the future actually justify solutions such as triple track systems? Can we justify confidence in a high tech future and the specific vocational training some feel is so mandatory? There appears to be sufficient evidence to give pause whether or not you are concerned as Schumacher and Giroux are about values and democracy. Rumberger, for instance, argues that: "considerable evidence suggests that the American

workforce has already attained an educational level that exceeds the educational requirements of many jobs in the economy" (1984, p342). That is there are fewer high tech jobs than there are skilled Americans. If Brown's injunctions were followed there would be many more technologically skilled workers for increasingly fewer jobs. For what is the likelihood of mass employment resulting from a high tech future? Rumberger and Grubb both quote figures from America which indicate that it is likely that the jobs requiring higher order skills will be few and far between. In fact Rumberger maintains that:

"The ten occupations that will produce the greatest number of new jobs in our future economy are unrelated to high technology; indeed only one of these occupations - nursing - even requires a college education. Most new jobs will be in low-level service and clerical fields; janitors, sales clerks, and cashiers will be in demand." (439)

Grubb agrees with this estimation stating that "no dramatic or drastic expansion of high tech programs is justified" (p439) and Australian predictions concur (Commonwealth Departments of Employment and Industrial Relations, and Industry Commerce and Technology, 1985).

New technology is actually likely to decrease the skills that many existing jobs now require. The example we see most frequently is in supermarkets and large stores which no longer require that cashiers can add or subtract. Where in the past machines have supported or taken away the need for manual labour in the future it is likely they will decrease the need for most to perform mental tasks and thus will displace mental labour. Rumberger argues that as a result U.S. society is likely to become increasingly bi-polar, with some people employed in high-level professional and managerial jobs while others are employed in low-level low-paying service jobs. Others of course will fail to find any work. This senario leads again to certain ideologies claiming a three tiered schooling system as a solution. But the likely role for teachers of the lowest tier would not be high

quality vocational education as Clare argues for but more pragmatic still, a system for keeping the masses content with low-skill occupations or unemployment. Cove succinctly sums up the outcomes of such a solution:

"If the implications of creating such a large pool of 'friendly mental midgets' (an apt phrase coined by John Steinbeck) are thought through it will become obvious that the effects on our present, democratic form of government would be disastrous. Imperfect it may be, but democracy is preferable to its alternatives. However, democracy cannot survive long without the consent, the support, and the active participation of its members. The creation of a huge underclass would lead inevitably to the decline of democratic institutions and then to their eventual disappearance" (1985(b), p7)

The implications for democracy

It is curious that the implications for democracy so firmly stated by Cove above and elsewhere in the papers for the Centenary Conference do not appear as a statement in the implications listed in the final document of Secondary Education: The Future. In the introductory section of the report "Trends in the Economy and in Society" which synthesises the debates described above there is no reference to the vulnerability of the democratic society in an uncertain future. The closest the report gets to such a statement in this section is in 1.7.5 which states:

"Current economic and social trends are placing pressure on schools to put more emphasis on broad competencies and job-related skills. An equal emphasis must be placed on the development of young people as unique individuals who have an ethical and moral sense, and an artistic sense, and who act responsibly towards others."

Giroux is more explicit:

"...the risk our society confronts involves in part the failure to take seriously the need to develop a public informed by the principles of critical literacy and civic courage, issues that should be at the core of any debate regarding educational policy at the local, state, and federal levels ... schools should be seen as institutions that prepare young people for democracy" (pp 190-193)

True, as we shall see as this discussion of the policy document proceeds, the concern for the maintenance of democracy is implicit and occasionally surfaces explicitly as the guiding principles for the future of secondary education are detailed. Nevertheless the literature on the economy, likely future employment patterns and prospects and the increasing technocratic and instrumental rhetoric being used to debate the issues makes a statement on the implications for the democratic processes and our value system fundamental as an introductory frame for a report such as this.

In fact the January edition of Secondary Education: The Future consistently changes the tone of the earlier Discussion Paper from pessimistic to positive. Headings are changed; "Unemployment" to "Employment" and "Family Breakdown" to "The Family" and passages are re-phrased to strike a more positive note. This was in part a direct response to criticism by teachers of the "depressing" introduction to the discussion paper. Hence the sense of urgency, ("consequent changes in school has now become a matter of great urgency" becomes "a matter for immediate action") is watered down. Perhaps it would be irresponsible to be unduly alarmist, particularly in this peaceful part of the world. Overall the editing has clarified rather than altered essential meanings.

Traditional Values and Competition

The changes which occurred between the January edition and the final version are more interesting. As was noted in the last chapter the two concepts "competition" and "traditional values"

were included in the final version of the policy document. The terms are included without definition and lack precision. The government appears to have been concerned about precisely this debate between acknowledging the demands of the economy and maintaining a value system.

The first attempt to accommodate the political wish for a mention of traditional values and competition was restrained. On the question of values 1.7.2 was changed from:

"Nevertheless, the importance of many of the traditional tasks of secondary schools must be reaffirmed. Broadly speaking, these tasks have always been to prepare students to make a living and to make their lives worth living." (January 1987 edition)

to:

"Nevertheless, the importance of traditional values and many of the traditional tasks of secondary schools must be reaffirmed. Broadly speaking ..." (May 1987)

The Education Department pointed out that a reference to values was already in the document (Education Department, 1987). These references could be found in paragraphs 1.7.5 (January edition, quoted above) and in 3.4.4 (January edition) which reads,

"Finally, for life and work in our society students need more than knowledge and competencies. They need to develop and display the characteristics that embody the spirit and values on which our society must be built."

On the question of competition the following accommodations were made to the January edition:

Paragraph 1.7.3 was changed from,

"Because the future is characterised by uncertainty and challenge, schools must provide programs that enable students to make important decisions themselves ..."

to,

"Because the future is characterised by uncertainty and challenge and increasing economic competition, schools must ..."

and Paragraph 3.2.8 was changed from,

"...work experience and transition education programs are included in this field. Students should study work as a conceptual issue ... Programs should be reviewed continually to ensure that they are appropriate for the students' present and future needs. Experiences of working as an employee, as a manager and as an entrepreneur should be included in work experience programs."

to,

"...work experience and transition education programs are, included in this field ... Experiences of working in a competitive environment as an employee, as a manager and an entrepreneur should be included in work experience programs."

The Education Department's advice which accompanied these suggested changes was that the matter of competition needed to be handled very carefully and should not be pushed further (Education Department, 1987). The Department made the point that,

"To be able to compete in adult life students must first develop a degree of self-confidence, and not be subjected to the kinds of artificial competition that once characterised classrooms. Such competition is quite different to competition in adult life." (op cit)

Nevertheless, the government wanted the concepts to have a wider reference although little attempt was made to explicate the terminology. The terms "traditional values" were given an initial emphasis in two new paragraphs which open the first section of the document, "Trends in the Economy and in Society" thus:

"Society is changing at an ever-increasing rate. The nature and speed of these changes make it essential that young people are adaptable and flexible if they are to participate effectively in a competitive world. To maintain stability in our society, however, the traditions and values that make up our culture should be preserved through the education programs in our schools and colleges.

These programs must assist students to develop a set of personal values and characteristics that embody the essential beliefs held by our society. Students should be expected to display initiative, act responsibly and honestly, show care and concern for others, value democratic processes and develop a sense of national pride."

This positioning is to set the tone from the beginning and does attempt to redress the mechanistic and instrumental emphasis which was of concern earlier in this chapter. The aim of these paragraphs is to link the need for flexibility and adaptability with a continuing need for maintaining stability and traditional values - that is to strike a balance.

Other additions were as follows: (the underlined sections represent words added to the January edition).

- 1.6.1 "... and the enrichment of our culture and traditional values"
- 1.7.4 "... work and society. They must realise that they are going to enter a world where competition is inescapable. Schools should (changed from 'must') design their programs so that this understanding is well developed."

Hence from being required to develop an understanding of work and society schools are in addition responsible for developing student understanding of competition in the world outside school.

3.1.1 "The curriculum should provide all students with experiences that:

- . ..
- . ..
- . equip them to cope with the competitive world outside school".

Hence an extra criteria governing the curriculum is added to those in the January edition. It emphasises a view of the world and of the place of schools in the world which many would debate.

6.2.1 This process should be practised diligently and systematically to ensure that education programs reflect the traditions of our society and develop in students the personal qualities valued by the community.

Hence the last statement in the document moves from the ideas of consultation and collaboration to re-establish the theme of traditional values which the added paragraphs at the beginning opened up.

It is interesting to consider those additions in the light of the National Schools Commission document In the National Interest (1987) which was published just prior to the release of the final version of Secondary Education: The Future. The former is a position document which unlike the local policy document places its key ideas and recommendations into the context of debate. Very early in the report the Schools Commission debates the concept of "competition" and acknowledges explicitly, and at length, the need for a position on values and the maintenance of our democratic society. On competition the Schools Commission states strongly:

"Essential to good schooling, and particularly good schooling in a democracy, is the group life of the school. Present

levels of competition, and arrangements governing it, erode the collective aspect of school life in two ways. They over-emphasise the needs and ambitions of individuals and they sort students into educational categories which are more closely related to social class than to the distribution of ability across the community." (3.10, p24)

They move on to discuss the use of the word "competition" as it is now used in Secondary Education: The Future, that is, that the competitive world of business outside school must be prepared for in schools. One inference is that because the outside world is competitive, competition between individuals in schools is to be encouraged. The Commission comments on the idea that competition amongst students or between schools is a good thing in its own right.

"The analogy being relied on is with behaviour in the market place where competition to varying degrees prevails and is a spur to performance. The analogy between the market place and schools is rarely developed beyond that point. Competition in the market place eliminates those who cannot compete. the object of education is not to eliminate weak or disadvantaged students but to develop their potential to the fullest, along with those who are more able. ... Competition can be a motivating force where reasonably evenly matched groups of students strive to win under fair rules in a given event. Where competition is used in the classroom as a standard means of motivation, the same groups of students always win and many know that they cannot succeed against their more able competitors." (3.13, p25)

The Commission continues by arguing, as do Peters and Waterman in their influential book In Search of Excellence (1984) that in the corporate and business world most enterprises, "do not seek competition between their employees but rather encourage co-operation between them in support of corporate goals" (Schools Commission, 1987, 3.14, p25). From these deliberations on the concept of "competition" some reflection on its interpretation and

the inferences which might be drawn from its addition to Secondary Education: The Future would seem to be advisable.

Chapter 4 of In the National Interest is titled "Democracy and Social Justice". The importance of education for the maintenance of democracy and the need to explicitly espouse values is argued at length. In opening up the discussion on values the report makes the point that, "An important part of the induction of young people into adult life is the formation of values." (4.3, p27). The writers acknowledge that schools have found their work increasingly difficult and they remark that, "there are indications that schools may be losing confidence in espousing values. The development of cultural and moral pluralism has made the schools' task more difficult" (4.3, p27). This is an interesting opinion from which to view Secondary Education: The Future for it is as if there was a loss of confidence in espousing values in this document. This led the government to sprinkle the terms "traditional values" throughout at strategic points but this bandaid operation remains finally unconvincing because no coherent or consistent position is argued for and maintained throughout the document.

The Schools Commission on the other hand puts its position very strongly.

"The distinctive character of Australian Society is summed up by saying that it is one of the world's very few liberal democracies. It follows that schools have amongst their most important tasks the moral and cultural preparation of young people for life as citizens in a democratic society, and the defence and continued development of democratic way of life and democratic institutions." (4.4, p27)

Further on the Commission is particularly explicit about values.

"The Commission considers that schools should teach values as consciously and as well as they can and that they should teach public virtues: honesty; respect for persons;

understanding of, and respect for the rule of law; the rights and responsibilities of political participation; tolerance of different ways of life; abhorrence of racism, sexism and other forms of prejudice; and the general importance of equality, including the equality of persons. This list is not meant to be exhaustive ... The educational responsibilities of all schools in the Australian democracy are two-fold: critical reflection on the significance of these values and consistency between theory and practice. These public virtues are closely related to fundamental intellectual virtues: respect for evidence, and integrity in argument; awareness of the limitations of knowledge, and attachment to reason. This is an important link between the educational and cultural work of the school." (4.10, p29)

This acknowledgement of the centrality of values and the succinct explicit elaboration of the concept together with a strong position on the importance of working to maintain democracy are significant gaps in our own policy document. The following chapter continues this argument by defining democracy and discussing equity of access and the growing concern for quality and excellence in education.

We walk a tight rope as we attempt to move from a statement of principles to the implementation of policy. A comment in the introduction reaffirming the place of education in maintaining a democratic society would have been a balancing pole for those who seek to find equilibrium between competing influences. In particular we will need to balance those influences which will seek instrumental and deceptively easy solutions to complex problems. A reminder about democracy points not only to beliefs but also to processes necessary for successful implementation.

CHAPTER 3

PROVISION: EQUITY AND EXCELLENCEDemocracy

What is this 'democracy' which a review of trends in the economy and in society reveals as so vulnerable? The term has evolved over the centuries changing its meaning with the passing generations. The term is very old and the meanings have 'always been complex' (Williams, Key words, 1983, P93) Literally the term means 'government by the people as a whole rather than by any section, class or interest within it'. (Scruton, A Dictionary of Political Thought, 1983, P116) Until the nineteenth century it was a strongly unfavourable term and it is only since the, relatively recent, late nineteenth and early twentieth century that a majority of political parties have declared their belief in it. From this time evolved what we term "representative democracy" where 'the people choose (say by voting) representatives who are then answerable to them, but at the same time directly involved, and usually without further consultation, in the practice of government' (Scruton, P116). As so-called democratic states have grown and become more complex the essential criteria for a democratic constitution are seen to be regular elections and universal suffrage but "they are only one part of a mode of government which may yet be undemocratic in every other particular" (Scruton, P116). In the west we normally call a state democratic, "if there is some way of attributing every major political decision to the people, either because they take part in making it, or because it ultimately depends on their consent" (Scruton, P116). In these terms Australia has one of the world's very few liberal democracies. Clearly we are dealing with a way of political organisation which has only a toe-hold on the history of human kind and is hardly the current preferred option internationally. The concept of democracy has and can change as it is interpreted into practice. This understanding adds emphasis to Cove's perceptive comment that,

'Imperfect it may be, but democracy is preferable to its alternatives. However, democracy cannot survive long without the consent, the support, and the active participation of its members.' (Cove 1985(b), p7).

Hand in hand with the growth of the democratic state goes the need for an educated suffrage to give the active and sustained participation to which Cove refers. A simple response to this need is to provide schools, buildings and teachers, for all children. This constitutes equity of provision in its simplest interpretation. However, as society has become more sophisticated, the demands on schools to prepare young people for life as citizens in a democratic society becomes greater and, as we saw in the previous chapter, more difficult to meet. A democratic society has high expectations of all its citizens. In his paper to the Centenary Conference, Phillip Hughes listed these as follows:

"It expects them to undertake the full responsibilities of citizenship: voting intelligently, taking an interest in political issues, understanding and supporting the legal system, taking responsibilities within the community. It expects them to undertake vocational responsibilities: preparing themselves for employment, developing appropriate skills and attitudes, making career choices at appropriate times. It expects them to develop as individuals, with a sense of self-respect, accepting the legitimate rights of others, being able to get on with others, having a range of cultural interests, developing a consistent and acceptable moral code. It is a formidable range of expectations, but it is what is meant by being a responsible citizen in a democratic society." (1985, p18)

Equality of provision alone becomes insufficient and quality education or excellence in education is required to meet these complex demands of our contemporary democratic society and the uncertain future which is our challenge.

Quality education

The acknowledgement that the provision of education must involve the interconnected aims of equity and excellence has been particularly noticeable during this decade. The ideas have reached notable prominence in reports such as A Nation at Risk (National Commission on Excellence in Education), 1983 in the United States of America and Quality of Education in Australia (Quality of Education Review Committee) in 1985. After years of expenditure in education to ensure equality of opportunity during the mid and late 1970's, governments in the 1980's are asking questions about outcomes, effectiveness, quality and excellence. Put simply governments want evidence of results of expenditure. The Quality of Education Review Committee comments on quality by acknowledging,

"There is no simple measure of quality. In the same way as the definition of what constitutes high quality education is multi-dimensional, so there is no simple prescription of the ingredients necessary to achieve high quality education: many factors interact - students and their backgrounds; staff and their skills; schools and their structure and ethos; curricula; and societal expectations." (Karmel, 1985, p186)

These factors which in their interaction, it is maintained, can result in quality education, are similar to those isolated by researchers into effective schools.

Recent research into schools deemed 'effective' has allowed educators to claim that schools can make a difference to student outcomes. Provision can and should be more than physical aspects such as classrooms, libraries, student-teacher ratios etc. One of the earliest studies which pointed to the influence schools can have was undertaken by Rutter and a team of researchers. Fifteen Thousand Hours: Secondary Schools and Their Effects on Children (Rutter, M. et al 1979) studies 12 British secondary schools in some detail taking four indicators of students progress;

attendance rates, behaviour in schools, results in public examination, and levels of officially recorded delinquency. What emerges is evidence that a school's "ethos" influences students as a group. School ethos includes factors such as the "style and quality" of school life, patterns of student and teacher behaviour, how students are treated as a group, the management of groups of students within the school and the care and maintenance of buildings and grounds.

A more recent study in the U.K. supports this thesis. From 1980 to 1984 the Inner London Education Authority Research and Statistics Branch made a large scale study of nearly 2,000 children in 50 inner London schools. Published in 1986 The Junior School Report found that an effective school is effective for all children and comes up with 12 factors which promote the effectiveness of the educational provision. They are:

1. Purposeful leadership of the Staff by the Head Teacher. This occurred when the head understood the needs of the school and was actively involved, but did not exert total control. The effective head placed an emphasis on monitoring pupils' progress, and encouraged in-service training - but allowed teachers to attend courses for a good reason.
2. The involvement of the Deputy Head. Little research has been done previously into the role of the deputy, and ILEA found that it was very important. The deputy's long-term absence was detrimental to pupils' progress. When the head involved the deputy in policy decisions and delegated some responsibilities the pupils benefited.
3. The involvement of teachers in curriculum planning, decisions on spending, and school policy contributed to school's success.
4. Consistency among teachers through the school in their approach was found to be important.

5. Structured Sessions. Pupils were found to benefit from a structured school day; unlimited responsibility for planning their own work did not help them. 'In general, teachers who organised a framework within which pupils could work, and yet allowed them some freedom within this structure, were more successful,' the report says.
6. Intellectually challenging teaching. This is obviously the most important factor. Not surprisingly, where pupils were stimulated and challenged, progress was greater. The level of the communications between teacher and pupils was crucial, and children did better where teachers used more 'higher order' questions - that is, where creative thinking and problem-solving were encouraged.
7. Work-centred environment. Effective teachers spent more time discussing the content of work with pupils, as opposed to routine matters.
8. Limited focus within sessions. Learning was made easier when teachers concentrated on one particular curriculum area within a session, even when all the children were not doing exactly the same work.
9. Maximum communication between teachers and pupils. The researchers found that when teachers spoke to the whole class, they increased the overall number of contacts with children, and this enabled more 'higher order' questions and statements. They recommend a balance of teacher contacts between individuals and the whole class. At least a quarter of school time should be spent working with the class as a whole, they suggest.
10. Record keeping was found to be an important aspect of teachers' planning and assessment, and it was helpful to include pupils' personal social development in the records.

11. Parental involvement. This included help in classrooms and attendance at meetings with teachers as well as working with children at home. The headteacher's accessibility was important, but formal PTAs did not have much impact on successful schooling.
12. Positive climate. More emphasis on reward than punishment, and an interest in the children as individuals, not just pupils, contributed to a more pleasant atmosphere. Where teachers had non-teaching periods, there was a positive impact on pupils' development. (This summary of the 12 factors is taken from Education 18 April, 1986 P.366).

In America there has been considerable research into school effectiveness and similar lists have been made. An Australian summary of the findings (Angus, 1986) outlines the factors which researchers have listed in their numerous studies.

"The most essential ingredient is usually an effective Principal who exercises strong leadership. To be regarded as such the principal, the key educational leader, must ensure that other effectiveness factors are put in place. In particular, the principal must establish a clear mission for the school; a climate of high expectations; clear academic goals with emphasis on the basic skills; frequent testing of student progress; a tightly co-ordinated curriculum; and a well-run school in which everyone knows their functions and carries them out efficiently. For their part, teachers in effective schools should: employ 'active' teaching methods with direct, whole class instruction; closely monitor pupils and faithfully record test results; recognise and reward 'academic excellence' or 'positive behaviour'; enforce rules clearly and consistently, and promote ceremonies and symbols that reinforce school goals and influence student culture to support school norms" (Angus, 1986, p1)

Clearly researchers in Britain and the United States feel that schools can make a significant difference to the quality of

educational provision and confidently list the factors which interconnect to provide for excellence in outcomes. Many of the points they raise will come up again in the following chapters. Nevertheless the effective schools literature has its critics. Commentators such as Angus (1986) Purkey and Smith (1982), Duke (1985 + 1987) and Starratt (1986) point to the narrowness of the definition of effectiveness. These writers point out that the studies are largely of elementary schools and the basic measure of effectiveness is a score on a standardized test of basic skills. Starratt acknowledges the importance of basic skills but questions:

"The exclusion of other forms of learning which are equally important for a person to function as a human being, namely those dealing with inventiveness, with imaginative expression, with social relationships, with self knowledge, with citizenship skills and sensibilities, with aesthetic appreciation, with moral decision making, with religious sensibilities." (Starratt, 1986, P.9)

Quality provision, which can truly take the adjective 'excellent' ought therefore be wider than the development of basic skills and as Starratt's list points out should include the range of intelligences such as postulated by Gardner, education for a democracy and the issue of values.

This sort of breadth in the desired outcomes will require on-going negotiation about appropriate outcomes between schools, systems and the wider community. As the term 'excellent' is applied in discussions of educational provision we must ensure that it implies more than the effective schools 'bandwagon' use of the term. Starratt warns us that:

"the school effectiveness movement in the United States does not deal with excellence; rather it is concerned with issues of minimum competency, with basics, with adequacy. Unfortunately, some commentators and politician's have begun to use the word 'excellence' in their rhetoric about the effort to improve test scores in basic skills (op.cit.)

Starratt's warning reminds us to draw connections between the effective school movement's emphasis on the basics and the instrumental and mechanistic emphasis propounded by many who see the economy as the heart of culture. Writing in a series of articles on equity and excellence in Harvard Educational Review Howard Howe II underlines this connection when he notes that the economic argument for well trained workers, "demands that schools produce excellence among the children of the poor for the sake of the nation's economic health. It wastes little time with concepts of equity or of our nation's need for independent-minded citizens to make a democracy and a complex society workable." (1987, p210)

The criticism of the effective school movement should guide our use of term "excellence". Nevertheless, despite the wisdom of the criticism, the work in the U.S. and U.K. does suggest that a complex set of factors interconnect to ensure some notions of quality provision and that by deliberate action these factors might be enhanced.

It is somewhat startling to see a term such as "excellence" used in a context which can be criticised as equating with minimum competency and adequacy. The concept of equality of outcomes or equity of provision is also attacked on the grounds,

"that it means in practice "levelling down", that it ignores human differences, confuses differences with inequalities, and that it did or could create new inequalities. The most trenchant criticism is however, that it is achieved only by denying excellence" (Commonwealth Schools Commission, 1987, 4.20 p31)

There is a tension between the concepts of "equity" and "excellence" (Greene 1985, Glazer 1987, Howe II 1987, Lightfoot 1987, Willie 1987 and Schools Commission 1987) but much depends on how "excellence" is defined. Excellence has not only been equated with minimum competency as in much of the effective schools literature but also with very high achievement in school work. This too is a narrow definition which excludes a large number of

students from the possibility of achieving excellence. Duke in an article on excellence in Phi Delta Kappan notes that while great confusion surrounding the issue of educational excellence has "not deterred thousands of school districts, civic groups and state agencies from marching off on crusades of excellence" (Duke, 1985, P.672) the general interpretation is alarmingly narrow. He goes on to argue for multiple conceptions of excellence referring to the theories of Howard Gardner which were mentioned in the last chapter. It is in this sense that provision of education must seek for the dual aims of equity and excellence. As the Schools Commission puts it:

"It follows that to have as many students as possible achieving excellence, talent should be drawn from and success sought from the widest range of young people. Equity is concerned with precisely this objective. Equity is not a trade-off for excellence but a pre-condition to its maximisation. A second way of viewing excellence is to think about a multiplicity of excellences. In this view there is room for excellence being displayed in many domains of life." (Schools Commission, 1987, 4.20 , p31)

Sara Lawrence Lightfoot adds an interesting perception to this discussion of equity and excellence in the Harvard Educational Review series referred to above. In her study of high schools, The Good High School - Portraits of Character and Culture (1984) she was troubled by the connotations of the word "excellence" and chose not to use it, selecting instead the term "goodness". In the Harvard Educational Review article she comments in a way which brings the concepts of equity and excellence rather neatly into harmony.

"If one is looking for 'goodness', rather than 'excellence', in schools, one sees a different reality. 'Goodness' refers to the complex culture of schools - to academic achievement, of course, but also the the craft and aesthetics of pedagogy; to the moral tone of the institution; to the quality of human encounter; and to the nature of organisational authority.

Using this more complicated definition of school success. Allows for the cohabitation of excellence and equality; because equality as a critical dimension of the human encounter becomes part of the pursuit of goodness; and because goodness permits excellence to shine in its myriad forms." (1987, p204)

The state reports which preceeded Secondary Education: The Future all indicated a concern for quality together with equity. For instance in Western Australia the Beazley Report (1984) called for enhanced quality and a strong core of excellence. In Queensland the Education 2000 Report (1985) is an agenda for excellence. In Victoria Ministerial Paper No. 6 (1985) states:

"Formal access is not enough. Although all young people are entitled to a full secondary schooling many are discouraged or diverted from taking full advantage of those opportunities. While some students may leave school prematurely because of factors beyond the control of the schooling system, others may leave because of unsatisfactory schooling experiences. The practices and processes that schools adapt greatly affect the way young people respond to the educational opportunities formally available to them. Real access requires that programs take account of differences in social and cultural background and that teaching methods provide for differences in pace and style of learning. (9.2 6.13)

In this statement schools are being required to take deliberate action so that young people are not discouraged from the formal education process. The first principle in the section on Provision in Secondary Education: The Future touches on exactly this point.

The Education Department should provide a continuous curriculum that extends from Kindergarten to year 12. (2.1 P.14)

Continuity

The concept of continuity stresses the perceived need for all young people to stay on to the end of formal schooling. In Australia fewer than half the age group who enter secondary school complete year 12 (Schools Commission 1987). Combined with unemployment, retention is a concern which is both politically and educationally motivated. The urgent need is for retention after Grade 10 but attitudes towards schooling are formed well before that time. As a Tasmanian study on retention found, "there is ample research evidence that many young people so actively dislike the educational experience which they have had that they are resistant to further study" (Langford and Andrews, 1983, P.48). Addressing the discontinuities is seen as one way to convince young people that continuing with their education is a worthwhile proposition.

The discontinuities which the transition between the various levels of schooling creates lead many young people to have unsatisfactory schooling experiences. In order to provide equality of opportunity in education and equality through education for our liberal democratic society the discontinuities which our historically determined school system has created must be deliberately addressed.

In Secondary Education: The Future the key transition points of grades 6 to 7 and grades 10 to 11 are discussed in general terms and teachers are exhorted to co-operate across grades 5-8 and 9-12. No specific strategies are outlined. The whole concept of continuity and what it might mean in practice and the specific matter of transition phases deserves closer attention. While this may not have been appropriate in the policy document itself they could have been provided in a companion volume such as those which accompanied Ministerial Paper No. 6 in Victoria. For practical possibilities it is interesting to turn to the Inner London report Improving Secondary Schools (Hargreaves, 1984) which blends recommendations with suggested strategies for the primary-secondary interface.

The Hargreaves committee also endorses strongly the concept of continuity. The committee cites research which indicates an alarming drop in student achievement and motivation after starting secondary school. To rectify this situation the committee suggests two possibilities which have local relevance: firstly the transfer of records and the co-ordination between primary and secondary schools and secondly the continuity in curriculum, teaching styles and classroom organisation. This is in accordance with Australian work on transition. For instance the Beazley report also made recommendations concerning the collection of relevant data on student performance from contributing primary schools, and curriculum development based on sequential programs through primary and secondary schooling. Education 2000 from Queensland aims at enhancing the continuity and relevance of primary school programs by integrating curriculum development across the year 1 to year 10 span. Improving Secondary Schools however, goes further by providing guidelines for implementing the general principles.

In the discussion on the transfer of records the Hargreaves committee notes some important issues which provide organising questions for our own local exploration of the concept of continuity. They are:

- "(i) What kinds of information, and how much, should be transferred from primary to secondary school?
- (ii) How can we ensure that primary school records are accurate?
- (iii) How much of the information should be seen by which teachers in the secondary school?
- (iv) Should secondary schools undertake their own independent testing procedures at transfer?
- (v) Are there any pupils to whom particular attention should be paid when the information is transferred?

- (vi) Should secondary school teachers visit primary schools?" (Hargreaves, 1984, 3.3.3 P.25)

In discussing the matter of records the committee notes that the successful transfer of information from primary to secondary school usually also involved personal contact about children for whom the recorded detail needed elaboration. In secondary schools they note that it is important for the information to reach all subject teachers and some primary schools also pass on portfolios of the children's work to augment the records. This gives an added richness to the information and provides a focus for discussion.

Various strategies to induct primary children into secondary schools have been tried by Tasmanian Secondary schools. Some schools have evolved strategies which go past simply minimising the trauma of the first few weeks. Induction, the London committee felt, should be properly worked out to help resolve the difficulties of curriculum continuity and differences in teaching style between the two sectors. Again a useful list of issues is given for the consideration of those creating an induction scheme.

"(i) what form should the induction take?

(ii) who should be involved in induction?

(iii) who should be in charge of the programme?

(iv) to what extent should induction involve teachers in both primary and secondary schools visiting each other?
(3.3.10 P.28)"

Familiarising the primary school students with the more complex secondary school takes a variety of forms. But whatever the process the Hargreaves committee recommends that two groups of people need to be closely involved: new pupils' parents and the current first year pupils. Any such program which is going to do more than allay the nervous fears in the first few weeks need to

be thoroughly and systematically planned. The Hargreaves committee state:

"Induction is more than making a child familiar with a new set of circumstances: it must relate quite closely to the child's previous experience of school. Certainly teaching style and curriculum content need to be carefully considered across the transition point." (3.3.14 P.29)

This requires a program of visits by secondary teachers to primary classrooms to observe the pupils being taught and to note the ways children learn. It is difficult to conceive of the concept of 'continuity' having any meaning at all without this occurring - and at both major points of transition. The Hargreaves committee stress this point.

"Programmes of visits between primary and secondary schools by which teachers can follow pupils through different classroom experiences and analyse the discontinuity, are crucial to attempts to overcome the hiccough in progress experienced at 11. Ideally we believe that it is beneficial if such visits are arranged on a mutual basis: primary teachers should have the opportunity to observe first year classrooms in the secondary school" (3.3.15 P.30)

The vital aspect of this continuity and the most difficult to address is continuity in curriculum content and teaching style. As Secondary Education: The Future points out the introduction of the Tasmanian Certificate of Education has "provided continuity of certification from year 9 to year 12, thus bridging the gap at the upper end of secondary schooling" (2.1.6). This may be optimistic rhetoric but indeed the structure is there for continuity of at least curriculum content - the matter of teaching style is more difficult and requires more than Schools Board provisions to effect. The Hargreaves committee is looking at this matter at the primary - secondary transition point and quotes research from Leicester which,

"indicates that however efficiently records and information are transferred, and however warmly or sympathetically first year pupils are received into their new school, primary school progress will be maintained only if pupils can carry on from where they left off, and use similar methods of working." (3.3.16 p30 my emphasis)

This the committee acknowledges is a complex problem. They see the issues as being;

- "(i) What are the best methods of achieving curricular continuity?
- (ii) How can teachers arrive at a more coherent teaching style across the break?
- (iii) What role should the primary guidelines play in helping curricular continuity?" (3.3.16, p31)

Typically schools in England's ILEA and here in Tasmania have responded by either reducing the number of teacher contacts for Grade 7 and sometimes Grade 8 pupils and by integrating subject disciplines hence making secondary schools initially less complex. Such moves, particularly if teaching style is effected help give coherence to at least a section of the curriculum.

Continuity of teaching style is the greatest challenge because it demands the "willingness of teachers across the divide to talk to each other and watch each other in the classroom" (Hargreaves, 3.3.18, p31) The implications for time and resources in an implementation strategy are enormous. The implications for implementation are made more complex because the emphasis here is on understanding the variety of ways children learn and as we shall see later in this discussion the policy document is not explicit on the fundamental matter of learning.

As we have noted continuity between grades 10 and 11 is made more urgent by the pressure of rising unemployment. The pragmatic

interpretation of retention as a way to offset rising unemployment figures is given emphasis by rhetoric which claims that,

"The future is bleak for many students who do not have the knowledge, training and maturity that can be gained in years 11 and 12, or through technical college studies." (Secondary Education: The Future 2.1.5 P.8)

Equity and even excellence of provision to grade 12 based on such rhetoric may not in itself provide employment futures if the jobs are not there. In the National Interest claims three basic conditions must be present for a student to continue with secondary education past grade 10.

- " . staying at school must be seen as desirable - this can depend on parental expectations and the students' school experience as well as considerations of the anticipated costs and benefits of continuing.
- . it must be educationally challenging yet rewarding - the students must meet with sufficient success in their studies to perceive that continuing in school will be of value to them.
- . it must be economically and socially possible - the students must have sufficient means of financial support, suitable living arrangements, access to a school and live in a social milieu where continuing in school is, at the least, an acceptable option" (Schools Commission 8.42 P.70)

These basic conditions provide insight for implications for implementing a concept of continuity at the upper secondary level. The key to continuity at this level is likely to be making the experience of education more rewarding for a much wider group of students than in the past when eliminating the majority was the unstated purpose. How the curriculum, assessment procedures and student participation in their learning can be improved are the subjects of subsequent chapters.

Provision for the isolated

The matter of equity and excellence of educational provision is a major problem in rural areas where small secondary classes have difficulty in providing a broad curriculum with adequate subject choice and range of learning experiences. Nationwide retention rates of rural students beyond grade 10 is particularly low. Distance education is an alternative but never an adequate substitute. Secondary Education: The Future exhorts secondary schools and colleges to co-operate to provide for students from year 7 to year 12. Co-operation is not spelt out in specific terms and the purposes as stated are utilitarian.

"It is desirable that all students, irrespective of location, should have access to a balanced range of courses that will enable them to complete secondary education and that prepare them for work or further studies".

One might want to add 'that will enable all students, even the most isolated, to contribute to the critical literacy and civic courage of which Giroux spoke'. Schools and school systems ought not ignore the values issue. The development of morally based critical reasoning will be fundamental to the continuation of a caring democratic society.

Individual differences

A further aspect of the concepts of equity and excellence of educational provisions addressed by Secondary Education: The Future is that no-one should be prevented from having access to the education process by virtue of their gender, cultural and socio-economic background; physical, social, emotional and mental abilities. In acknowledging the need to provide for individual needs and differences Secondary Education: The Future is in sympathy with other state reports. Ministerial Paper No. 6 for instance contains the following general statements,

"Approaches to teaching and learning should be suited to the individual needs, abilities, and cultural understanding of students" (10.1.15)

"Schools should be aware of the influence of gender, class and ethnic background or styles of learning ..." (10.3 P.16) and

"Methods (should) provide for differences in pace and style of learning" (9.2, P.13)

Secondary Education: The Future states that,

"through deliberate action (schools and colleges) can provide an example of care and concern and play a major part in promoting individual talents and reducing the effects of disadvantage wherever these are evident". (2.3.4)

This statement covers a multitude of practical implications for teachers. Ministerial No. 6 supplements its general principles with a booklet Individual Differences which covers the general issue of difference and proceeds to give practical advice about what 'deliberate action' might be relevant for: differences in abilities; differences in motivation and self-concept; differences in pace and style of learning; differences in gender and differences in social and cultural background. This kind of support is a fundamental starting point for implementation because it teases out the range of what is meant by "individual differences" where Secondary Education: The Future glosses over them, and begins to translate general principles into practical possibilities. This section also links with the need to better understand learning and highlights that booklets while a support are not in themselves sufficient. There are urgent implications for classroom based research, teachers' professional development and school co-ordinated staff development strategies.

The final part of this section of the policy document did not appear in the earlier Discussion Paper. It is in this addition

that the notion of quality provision is made explicit with the inclusion of the idea of the 'pursuit of excellence'.

"An essential part of promoting individual talents is the pursuit of excellence. When teachers are helping students to develop their talents, it is important to realise that what may be the apex of achievement for one student may not be for another, and that different students will display excellence in different areas of the curriculum and in different activities. If students are to be encouraged to develop to their own level of excellence throughout their education, each student's successes and achievements are incentives to further learning." (2.3.5 P.8)

This statement embodies the ideas on excellence referred to earlier and particularly echoes a definition of excellence which accepts Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences. The word 'pursuit' is worth noting. Duke, in his Phi Delta Kappan article remarked that,

"Ultimately, it is the pursuit rather than the achievement of excellence that matters most. By nature, the achievement of true excellence in any area is limited to a relative few."
(Duke, 1985, P.674)

For the maintenance of democracy in a future which is rapidly changing, becoming increasingly technological and placing demands on our abilities to be caring individuals we cannot accept that a relative few can pursue excellence. The talents of all are needed in what must be seen as a co-operative venture. Secondary Education: The Future talks of 'promoting individual talents' but Robert Starratt when he visited Hobart in 1986 reminded us that this may be a narrow perspective. He ended his talk by speaking of an educational leader's vision that should carry us,

"beyond the goal of Individual Fulfillment reflected in other writings on educational excellence, namely, that schools exist primarily to nurture each person's growth to his or her

individual potential so that individually they can enjoy a happy, fulfilled, though basically private life. That vision of excellence, while including the goal of individual fulfillment, should point to the social purposes of education, namely, that schools exist primarily to enable the community to continue the grand experiment of free human beings who choose to govern their public affairs by the use of intelligence and compassion, both of which are nurtured and developed in each succeeding generation by the nation's schools." (Starratt, 1986, P.20)

CHAPTER 4

FIELDS OF KNOWLEDGE AND EXPERIENCE AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF
COMPETENCIES

The Curriculum section of Secondary Education: The Future rests on the view that the appropriate education for young people at the present time is a broad general education. There is widespread agreement that narrow vocational education is inappropriate and that life determining choices should be deferred for as long as possible (Scott, 1977; Goodlad, 1983; Boyer, 1983; Hargreaves, 1984; Sizer, 1984; Grubb, 1984; QERC, 1985 and Boomer, 1986). Specifically the authors of Secondary Education: The Future have highlighted two main emphases in recent writing on secondary education. The first is general agreement on the broad elements of the curricula, or core, while the second acknowledges the heightened awareness of the need to more systematically develop a complex range of competencies and characteristics in order to provide young people with the skills, attitudes and concepts to apply knowledge purposefully in their future lives. Other themes from recent writing on secondary education also emerge in this section and are developed in subsequent sections. They are the emphasis on active learning styles which leads to a consideration of teaching styles and finally to assessment.

Areas of experience

The belief that all adolescents should share a common core of curriculum experience has been widespread over the past ten years. The H.M.I. Curriculum 11-16, Working Papers (1977) which became known as "The Red Book" emphasised a broad general education for eleven to sixteen year olds based on what they described as eight "Areas of Experience". These areas are:

- . Aesthetic and creative

- . The ethical
- . The linguistic
- . The mathematical
- . The physical
- . The scientific
- . The social and political
- . The spiritual (HMI, 1977, p6)

The Scottish Munn Report, The Structure of the Curriculum (1977) favoured a core plus options approach. They were careful to stress that, "an essential feature of our recommended structure is that pupils will have options within the core as well as outside it". (Munn, 1977, P37). The report argued that a high priority should be given to certain 'modes of activity' and went on to list eight such modes, namely:

- . Linguistic and literary study (developing communication skills)
- . Mathematical studies
- . Scientific study
- . Social Studies
- . Creative aesthetic activities
- . Physical activity
- . Religious studies
- . Morality (pp23-27)

These modes, the report felt, contributed essential areas of learning which all pupils (their emphasis) should be required to engage in throughout the period of compulsory schooling.

The Tasmanian Scott Report, Secondary Education in Tasmania (1977) also developed this theme. The report challenged the concept that curriculum balance is achieved through providing a choice between subjects. Balance in the curriculum, the report argued, should be conceived in terms of a range of activities and experiences which might be offered in a variety of ways. This report isolated six broad areas of activity in which the school should attempt to involve all students. They are:

- . Language
- . Mathematics
- . Gaining insights into the physical environment
- . Gaining insights into the social and cultural environment
- . Experience in the arts and crafts
- . A consideration of the problems of humanity that concern and puzzle adolescents.

(Scott, 1977, P83)

The report added that all students should also be involved in physical education.

These three reports all suggested that the "Areas of Experience", "Modes of Activity" and "Broad Areas of Activity" could all possibly be covered through the existing individual subjects. The Scott Report commented that it "sees all of the subjects as presently conceived contributing to most areas and none of the

areas, even mathematics, being exclusively the concern of one of the present subjects". (Scott, 1977, P83). However, the reports stressed that the areas were the concern of all teachers hence schools must communicate across subject boundaries to work out ways of providing a coherent meaning for each child. Implicit too in the headings 'activity' and 'experience' were notions of the child as an active learner rather than passive receiver of information. Linked with this focus was the idea that children as active learners in certain areas of experience will be taking away from that experience skills, forms of understanding, modes of learning as well as content knowledge. This focus on key processes, or critical abilities to be fostered is developed more explicitly in later reports as we shall see.

Common core curriculum

Reports which followed those of 1977 continued to stress the notion of a core curriculum. In one of the papers arising out of the Council of Europe meeting of European Ministers of Education in Dublin in 1983, Margaret Marshall emphasised the need for a broad curriculum arguing for avoidance of premature and exclusive categorisation. She made the point that coherence is very important for pupils and recommended the Australian Core Curriculum proposals as a possible model for discussion.

In America, Adler in The Paideia Proposal (1982), Goodlad in A Place Called School (1983), Boyer in High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America, (1983), andSizer in Horace's Compromise (1984), all argued for an agreed common core. For Adler the course of study to be followed in the twelve years of basic schooling should be completely required with the exception of the choice of a second language. Three areas of subject matter are maintained to be indispensable to basic schooling:

- . Language, Literature and the Fine Arts
- . Mathematics and Natural Science

. History, Geography and Social Studies

"The innovative aspect ... lies not in the choice of subject matter but in the concentration and continuity of the study required" and is put forward as a way of overcoming the fragmentary nature of high school curricula. Adler adds auxillary studies: Physical education, including instruction about health and a wide variety of manual activities and in the later years an introduction to the wide range of human work (p21-25).

For Goodlad there should be five domains and he apportioned percentage time for each thus:

. Literature and language	18%
. Maths and Science	18%
. Social Sciences	15%
. The Arts	15%
. Vocation	15%

He adds physical education giving it 10% of the apportioned time and suggests a system of guided choice for what he calls the sixth domain (Goodlad, 1983, p287). Boyer's core curriculum consists of:

- . Basic English with an emphasis on writing and study of the spoken word
- . Two years of Science
- . Two years of Maths
- . Two years of a Foreign Language

Other core areas would include: U.S. History; Western

Civilisation; Non-Western Civilisation; Literature; Arts; Civics; Technology; Health; Meaning of Work; plus an independent project and independent community work.

Sizer who was a member of The Paideia Group with Adler, has a sparer approach arguing persuasively for the notion that 'less is more'. Hence he puts forward only four organisational core areas:

- . Inquiry and Expression
- . Mathematics and Science
- . Literature and the Arts
- . Philosophy and History

(Sizer, 1984, P132)

The Inner London Education Authority Report, Improving Secondary Schools (1984) chaired by David Hargreaves continues this focus on an agreed broad compulsory common curriculum with a wider option choice postponed until 16 years of age. For Hargreaves the common curriculum should have six elements namely:

- . English Language and Literature 12 1/2%
- . Mathematics 12 1/2%
- . Science 10%
- . Personal and Social Education and Religious Education 7 1/2%
- . At least one 'aesthetic's subject (a constrained option) 10%
- . At least one 'technical' subject (a constrained option) 10%

This leaves 37 1/2% for either additional periods in compulsory subjects or free options chosen from such headings as: classical and foreign languages, history, geography, economics, etc.

Hence the Hargreaves committee decided, after much debate which they describe in detail, to combine a common curriculum with a balance of guided and free options.

In Australia the Western Australian Beazley Report (1984) recommended a common curriculum K-8 with a notion of increasing choice as students progress through years 9 and 10 (largely common curriculum with substantial options) and for years 11 and 12 a more individual and flexible system of schooling was recommended. Beazley felt the core should have a seven component structure with students obliged to choose courses organised in a unit system from the following areas:

- . Language and communication
- . Social Studies
- . Mathematics
- . Science and technology
- . Physical and Health Education
- . Vocational and personal awareness
- . Practical and creative arts.

In 1985 the Blackburn Report Ministerial Review of Post Compulsory Schooling (Victoria) discussed a strong element of core curriculum for grades 11 and 12 as a flexible basis for the acquisition of skills, and QERC: Quality of Education in Australia stressed skills or as the report defines them, competencies - "the ability to use knowledge and skills effectively to achieve a purpose"

(QERC, 1985, P70). QERC underpinned this stress with the notion of a rich core curriculum, specifically not a smorgasbord approach. The curriculum is described as the "vehicle" through which schools develop the general competencies.

Fields of knowledge and experience

The authors of Secondary Education: The Future take up, as we will examine in a moment, the QERC's stress on competencies but do not leave the curriculum as an undefined vehicle. Rather they return to the ideas of the H.M.I., Munn and most significantly Scott by nominating six "Fields of Knowledge and Experience" as follows:

- . Languages: using and studying the English language and other languages;
- . The Sciences and Mathematics: including their applications;
- . The Arts: including literature, Music, Drama, the Media and other expressive and practical arts;
- . The Social Sciences: including history and geography, and studies of economics, politics, cultures and religions;
- . The study of Work and Daily Life;
- . Health, Physical education, and Recreation. (3.2)

Like the H.M.I. (1977) the authors of the above stress that the "fields" have equal status. The H.M.I. communicated this by placing their list in alphabetical order while the authors of Secondary Education: The Future add the comment, "The order in which the fields of knowledge and experience have been listed has no special significance" (3.2). Furthermore the 1987 statement is also at pains to communicate the notion found earlier in the H.M.I. (1977) working papers and The Scott Report (1977) that these fields of knowledge and experience do not constitute a list

of subjects, or strictly a curricular program but a checklist to which all subjects as presently conceived contribute (to echo Scott) or "a set of analytical categories by which balance and coherence in the curriculum as a whole might be achieved" (to quote Hargreaves 1984). Secondary Education: The Future makes this point by stating:

"The fields of knowledge and experience do not constitute a list of subjects and courses. Subjects and courses should be derived from them" (3.2.1)

This is a clarification of the intention as expressed in the earlier discussion paper as "these fields of knowledge and experience should be the source of the subjects and courses" (4.2.1) which could still imply a one to one relationship between "field" and "subject". Even the H.M.I. areas of experience are 'disturbingly close to the conventional subject labels' (Hargreaves 1984) but to use the word "knowledge" in "fields of knowledge and experience" as Secondary Education: The Future does blurs the authors' intentions in that "fields of knowledge" could imply conventional subjects. The simpler "areas of activity/experience" attempt to interrupt the conventional subject thinking. Further the use of the word "study" in "Study of Work and Daily Life" communicates a subject notion in a new area whose across the curriculum implications and opportunities have yet to be realised. An implicit ossification into a subject box would be an unfortunate beginning if the intention is truly to consider the field across the curriculum.

The separation of literature from language in the organisation of fields of knowledge and experience has upset some conventional heads and is certainly an innovative step if we compare this list with the others commented on above. To separate the field of language learning and development from an exclusive link with the teaching of English (which includes a focus on literature among other things) may contribute to an understanding that this is a field to which all subjects contribute. That is no subject has the exclusive right to this field of knowledge and experience and

English contains within itself several fields of knowledge and experience. Hargreaves (1984) in discussing this suggestion as put forward by the HMI suggests:

"We might thus usefully construct a table in which the areas of experience represent the vertical axis and the subject departments the horizontal axis. Each subject then asks itself which areas of experience come within its work; and, in each area of experience for which it accepts some responsibility, the department must co-ordinate in detail its activities with all other departments which also accept some responsibility for that particular area of experience. Each department then reviews the scope of its activities and, at the same time, co-ordinates with all other departments with whom its activities overlap in some way. By this means the school staff reviews the curriculum as a whole and finds the impetus to create greater balance and coherence" (P37)

However the task of applying the fields of knowledge and experience across whole school departments as a means of achieving balance and coherence is inordinately difficult if the HMI experience is anything to go by. In Curriculum 11-16 A Review of Progress (1981) and Curriculum 11-16 A Statement of Entitlement (1983) the intellectual and organisational difficulties of following this through are enumerated. Even narrower attempts at language across the curriculum policies in secondary schools as a result of the Bullock Report A Language For Life (1975) have been difficult to implement. Hargreaves (1984) comments that:

"Across the curriculum policies in language and mathematics are at the root of a sustained attack on under-achievement in the secondary schools. It has to be conceded, however, that such across the curriculum policies have proved very difficult indeed to implement and one reason maybe that there is virtually no tradition of whole-curriculum policies in our secondary schools, whose strength has lain primarily in effective policies within separate departments, each working in isolation from the others. The significance of the HMI

'areas of experience' checklist lies precisely in the view that all the areas of experience, not just language and mathematics, must be seen in terms of whole curriculum policies. It will take very considerable time and effort before such an approach to curriculum planning is institutionalised within our schools as good practice" (pp38-39)

Hence Secondary Education: The Future's inclusion of this critical idea as a base for curriculum planning is to be applauded but ways of providing schools with useful experiences of whole school curriculum planning together with the establishment of permanent machinery, such as a curriculum committee to guide the process will need to be developed. This is a critical matter for the implementation of policy. Practical suggestions for developing such a curriculum planning process as well as a coherent theoretical framework can be found in the work of Denis Lawton (1983 and 1986). In Curriculum Studies and Educational Planning (1983) he encourages schools to use a model such as the HMI's 'areas of experience' and to use a matrix approach to planning such as that suggested by Hargreaves above. Lawton believes that subjects will not do as the basis for curriculum planning.

"... subjects may well be used as part of the end product - the teaching program of the school - but it is not appropriate to start with subjects." (1986, p2)

Hence he would support the notion that the fields of knowledge and experience are not a list of subjects and that each school ought to address the connection between the conventional list of subjects which make up the timetable and the fields. Nevertheless Lawton maintains that teachers' subject specialisms need to be respected and acknowledged and from this area of expertise teachers might be moved to consider other possibilities by tools such as Secondary Education: The Future's list of fields of knowledge and experience. He states that:

"The purpose of encouraging teachers to rethink what they

have to offer from the basis of their own subject specialism is that they should no longer teach, say, history, but would also need to ask what does history have to contribute to the pupil's understanding of one of the eight systems suggested as the basis of cultural analysis." (1983, p62)

Lawton's eight systems are based on a commitment to education as a process of transmitting culture from one generation to the next. Applying a process he describes as cultural analysis Lawton has established a list of features which he maintains every society would necessarily possess. There are interesting overlaps with the lists we have already noted above. Lawton's eight cultural systems are:

- "1. a socio-political system
2. an economic system
3. a communication system
4. a rationality system
5. a technology system.
6. a morality system
7. a belief system
8. an aesthetic system" (1986, p2)

These cultural systems may be applied to a society, say Australia, and from this application may be derived, Lawton argues, a reasonable curriculum. In both books (1983 and 1986) Lawton gives extensive detail to the theoretical framework but also gives specific and explicit pointers to the problem of providing schools with useful and productive experiences of whole school curriculum planning. Lawton (1983) suggests a possible committee structure designed to involve teachers at all stages of planning. Three levels of discussion in committees are proposed. The first level

"... would be concerned with general balance and coverage for the whole curriculum, and should be chaired by the head teacher, or a director of studies, or curriculum co-ordinator ... The purpose of this committee would be to seek the

co-operation of all departments in planning the whole curriculum." (1983, p68)

The second level of committee work, "is concerned with maximum co-operation and co-ordination within departments" (op cit) while the third level, "would be concerned with inter-departmental integration to ensure maximum co-operation and co-ordination between departments." (op cit). He acknowledges that committees do not necessarily solve problems but maintains that, "a sensible policy of teacher involvement by means of committees may be an essential pre-requisite to successful planning". (1983, p68). He also suggests that schools appoint co-ordinators for difficult cross-subject areas, something schools here may need to do in the areas of health and work and daily life which do not have fixed subject departments. This is a strategy for developing the necessary co-operation between departments.

Finally, in discussing the fields of knowledge and experience, it is worth noting the absence of a recognition of the ethical and spiritual as separate fields. This accords with the areas of activity listed by Scott in 1977 and the other American and Australian reports reviewed above, however it contrasts markedly with the HMI, Munn, Hargreaves and Lawton approaches. 'Cultures and Religion' has been added to the field of Social Sciences but the ethical domain is not accorded the status of a field despite the body of knowledge and areas of experience which the term encompasses. Rather the attention to morals and value issues has been included later as one of several characteristics which need to be developed because they "enbody the spirit and values on which our society must be built" (3.4.4). Furthermore one aspect of this later section on characteristics is also a significant addition to the discussion of what might constitute the field of The Social Sciences namely "special emphasis on practical studies in citizenship and democratic processes". This touches on a concern discussed in the second chapter. The word 'practical' with its implications of active learning styles picks up the issue of the importance of an informed citizenry for the maintenance of democracy which Cove wrote about for the Centenary Conference but

which was not included in the introductory implications of the section "Trends in the economy and in Society". In 1985 Cove wrote:

"National educational policies that respond only to the instrumental aspects of technological change will lead to the further deterioration of the ordinary citizen's role in society ... It will not be sufficient to teach students ABOUT civic responsibility in schools they will need to become habituated to the practice of it (Cove, 1985 (b) P5)"

Considering how this might be facilitated in schools, most of which are not manifest examples of the democratic process at work raises interesting implications for the role of students councils, negotiation of work contracts etc which will need to be considered for the process of implementation.

A focus on skills

The Secondary Education: The Future document moves from describing the fields of knowledge and experience and maintaining that the central ideas and principles of the fields of knowledge and experience should be illustrated and applied in courses studied, (3.3) to a discussion of competencies and characteristics.

"The curriculum should provide students with opportunities to develop the competencies and characteristics that are essential for life and work in our society" (3.4)

When I referred to the 1985 QERC report above it was to note that the broad general curriculum played second place to the acquisition of certain skills, competencies and capabilities for which the curriculum was the vehicle. The prominence accorded to skills and the developing use of the term "competencies" is observable in the documents reviewed so far and in other recent educational literature. It is interesting to begin this summary by going back to the HMI (1977) report which suggested the need

for a broad general education from 11-16 and based its argument upon eight 'areas of experience' as necessary elements which, "together, would offer pupils preparation for their personal as well as for their working and leisure life" (HMI 1983, Pv). By 1983, in Towards a Statement of Entitlement, and after six years of practical examination of those ideas, "It was not long before it was recognised that for practical purposes, more explicit attention had to be given to the place of skills in the curriculum" (op. cit.). The 1977 HMI, Munn and Scott Reports were all aware of the importance of skills (the influence of the 1975 Bullock Report is evident in all three) but as this chapter continues we shall see that as the 1983 HMI report indicates when one actually begins to attempt to effect change in classrooms the place of skills and the capacity to define more precisely what they might be becomes critical. The TEND Report of 1978 was beginning to indicate an understanding of this when it spoke of the core curriculum as being the central part of a general education consisting of key processes - not necessarily the present basic subjects. Values, processes of thinking and communicating TEND argued, were at the heart of the curriculum, not as three subjects, but taught throughout the total curriculum. The focus had moved from content but the language was still very general.

The HMI 1983 document, Towards a Statement of Entitlement, makes a very helpful list of objectives. It is important to keep in mind in reading them that they have been developed from six years of putting the 1977 recommendations into action in several L.E.A.'s and seek to answer the specific focus; what might a pupil at the age of 16 reasonably be expected to have acquired from a secondary school education. The list of objectives which the HMI argue a curriculum should include are:

1. "Skills - a skill is a capacity or competence: the ability successfully to perform a task whether intellectual or manual. The acquisition of a skill may be dependent on the possession of certain knowledge and/or concepts.

Examples of clusters of skills (not exhaustive):

- (a) Communication skills
- (b) Numerical skills
- (c) Observational and visual skills
- (d) Imaginative skills
- (e) Organisation study skills
- (f) Physical and practical skills
- (g) Social skills
- (h) Problem-solving, creative skills.

2. Attitudes - is a disposition to think and act in a particular way in relation to oneself and to other individuals or groups in society. Attitudes determine responses to problems, issues and situations.
3. Concepts - enables one to classify, organise and understand knowledge and experiences, often it is the abstraction and generalisations for a number of discrete instances.
4. Knowledge - the information which is selected to develop skills, attitudes, and concepts and to achieve aims identified in the curriculum."

(HMI, 1983, pp29-33)

The notion of the active learner which was more implicit in the earlier reports really surfaces once the focus of the curriculum is spelt out as a list of objectives like the one cited above. Hence the HMI went on to discuss the fact that methodology is critical.

"Where a curriculum has as its predominant emphasis, the acquisition of knowledge or learning of information, a relatively narrow range of methods may be considered adequate. When, however, a curriculum emphasises the acquisition of skills, attitudes and concepts as well as knowledge, this is no longer the case." (p35)

The importance of methodology

This argument develops ideas stressed earlier by writers such as Husen, who in The School in Question (1979) wrote that it was important for schools to arrange learning opportunities and that the role of the teachers was as an organiser of learning experiences for the individual student. This task, Husen saw, as continuous and systematic requiring the teacher to guide the learning process itself and check the outcomes (Husen, 1979, P171). Outcomes were the concern too of Tyrrel Burgess and Elizabeth Adams who in 1986 edited a book titled Outcomes of Education which argues the limitations of traditional examinations to assess the full potential of learning outcomes. John Raven in his chapter, "Bringing education back into schools" defines competence:

"these complex qualities [for instance initiative, leadership, ability to work with others and responsibility] have very little in common with the knowledge of content which is mainly assessed in school examinations. But neither are there qualities adequately described as 'skills'. They involve complex, integrated, cognitive, affective and behavioural styles. The best word I can find to refer to them is 'competency'. The key shift which is required in education - and in educational measurement - is, therefore, from a focus on content to a focus on competencies" (P109 Raven's emphasis).

Such a focus on competencies, the book as a whole makes clear, requires young people to be far more actively involved in the

learning process and through several specific examples recommends a system of profile reporting. Margaret Marshall in The Compulsory Secondary School - Adolescents in the Curriculum (1983) also recommended a consideration of profile reporting and stressed the importance of methodology. She argued that passive listening ought to be reduced and that there should be more flexibility between individual and group work asking teachers to consider a variety of presentations and flexibility of teacher styles (Marshall, 1983, P42). Active learning and teaching styles are discussed in more detail in the following two chapters.

In America, Boyer (1983) also comments on the link between the active learning of pupils and the consequent need to develop a range of teaching styles. Goodlad (1983) explains how two thirds of all students' program in what he called the fifth domain should consist of a common set of concepts, principles, skills and ways of knowing. He clearly understands one implication of this - that there should be school discussion both school-wide and within faculties to address how their subject promotes concepts, skills etc. Like the HMI and Denis Lawton, Goodlad is concerned to find ways through the limitations imposed by the subject based, faculty organisation of schools to achieve across the curriculum decisions and policies. Added to this Goodlad feels there is need for a substantial improvement in pedagogy and hence thoughtful well-developed in-service programs. However it is Mortimer Adler who most succinctly communicates the importance of a focus on skills and the interconnectedness of this to areas of knowledge, enlargement of understanding and to the critical matter of a range of teaching styles. This he achieved in diagramatic form in his manifesto The Paideia Proposal (1982).

	COLUMN ONE	COLUMN TWO	COLUMN THREE
<u>GOALS</u>	ACQUISITION OF ORGANISED KNOWLEDGE	DEVELOPMENT OF INTELLECTUAL SKILLS-SKILLS OF LEARNING	ENLARGED UNDERSTANDING OF IDEAS AND VALUES
	by means of	by means of	by means of
<u>MEANS</u>	DIDACTIC INSTRUCTION LECTURES AND RESPONSES TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER AIDS	COACHING, EXERCISES, AND SUPERVISED PRACTICE	MAIEUTIC OR SOCRATIC QUESTIONING AND ACTIVE PARTICIPATION
	in three areas of subject matter	in the operations of	in the
<u>AREAS OPERATIONS AND ACTIVITIES</u>	LANGUAGE, LITERATURE, AND THE FINE ARTS MATHEMATICS AND NATURAL SCIENCE HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY AND SOCIAL STUDIES	READING, WRITING, SPEAKING, LISTENING CALCULATING, PROBLEM SOLVING OBSERVING, MEASURING ESTIMATING EXERCISING CRITICAL JUDGEMENT	DISCUSSION OF BOOKS (NOT TEXTBOOKS) AND OTHER WORKS OF ART AND INVOLVEMENT IN ARTISTIC ACTIVITIES e.g. MUSIC DRAMA, VISUAL ARTS

THE THREE COLUMNS DO NOT CORRESPOND TO SEPARATE COURSES, NOR IS ONE KIND OF TEACHING AND LEARNING NECESSARILY CONFINED TO ANY ONE CLASS (P23)

Adler maintains that the skills are learned in performance and this makes the mode of teaching critical. He believes it must be 'akin to coaching that is done to impart athletic skills'? (p27) Column Two Adler states 'is the backbone of basic schooling' (p28), another way of placing the focus on competencies, because 'Proficiency in all the skills that it lists - all of them the very means of learning itself - is indispensable to the efficient teaching and learning of the subject matters in Column one; and also indispensable to teaching and learning in Column Three" (p28).

Placing skills and competencies (and the terms are used to encompass very similar matters) at the centre of deliberations continued to be a marked trend in the U.K. and in America. In the U.K. a study of the Further Education Unit within the Department of Education and Science in England and Wales was looking particularly at vocational education. This study entitled Basic Skills (1982) describes a range of basic skills which they believe will help 16 year olds be adaptable and open to further development. The following list shows considerable agreement with the lists of skills, capabilities, competencies etc. which have been described above as central to general secondary education:

1. Basic calculating
2. Measurement and Drawing
3. Listening and talking
4. Reading
5. Writing
6. Planning and Problem-solving as well as Interpersonal Skills
7. Study and practical skills.

These broad headings were arrived at by analysing job descriptions and seeing what skills young people were most commonly required to possess. However the Further Education Unit went further and thought through these headings more precisely examining in some detail the sub-set of skills which cluster under say 'Reading'. In this case they are as follows:

- Read words
- Read to get information
- Read messages
- Look things up
- Read forms

Read to check content
Read letters of the alphabet
Read fellow workers
Read supervisor
Take information from charts/tables
Read letters
Read memos
Read .. senior to supervisor
Use colour/letter/number codes
Read 'how it works' books
Read patients/clients

This list includes a metaphoric use of the word 'read' as in 'read fellow workers' which indicates the degree of complexity these so-called 'basic' skills are thought to encompass. Such a list helps us be very much more specific about what we may need to teach young people. Also it highlights the need for a variety of imaginative activities which will allow the performance Adler spoke of as essential for the accomplishment of these skills. Furthermore such a list helps clarify thinking about assessment and reporting processes as McCann pointed out, "this list of abilities can also form the basis of an individual profile and ability report to the student and other suitable audiences" (1985 p6).

In 1983 the U.S. College Board within the Educational Equality Project developed the same focus as the 1983 HMI - that is what should a student be able to do at the end of secondary schooling. In their report, Academic Preparation for College: What Students Need to Know and be Able to Do, they use the term 'competencies' but this list has considerable overlap with the Basic Skills list referred to above. They list the basic academic competencies as:

1. Reading
2. Writing
3. Speaking and listening

4. Mathematics
5. Reasoning
6. Studying

(College Board, 1983, Pp7-12)

These competencies they maintain are interrelated to and interdependent with the following basic academic subjects:

1. English
2. The Arts
3. Mathematics
4. Science
5. Social Studies
6. Foreign Languages

(College Board, 1983, Pp14-30)

"Without such competencies" the College Board maintained, "knowledge of history, science, language, and all other subjects is unattainable" (p7). The list of academic competencies may look bald and even pedestrian but, like the Further Education Unit the College Board has more fully defined each competency and for each subject a further list of learning outcomes or abilities is developed. For instance

"Reading

- . The ability to identify and comprehend the main and subordinate ideas in a written work and to summarize the ideas in one's own words

- . The ability to recognize different purposes and methods of writing, to identify a writer's point of view and tone, and to interpret a writer's meaning inferentially as well as literally.
- . The ability to vary one's reading speed and method (survey, skim, review, question, and master) according to the type of material and one's purpose for reading.
- . The ability to use the features of books and other reference materials, such as table of contents, preface, introduction, titles and subtitles, index, glossary, appendix, bibliography.
- . The ability to define unfamiliar words by decoding, using contextual clues, or by using a dictionary." (pp7-8)

Hence the document provides a very detailed assessment of learning outcomes. Furthermore the detail carries implicit implications for active learning opportunities - an applied curriculum.

The Hargreaves Report (1984) continues the theme of student as active learner and the stress on the acquisition of skills before content. Pupils, the report argued, should be engaged in active practical learning tasks in which achievement of skills and the outcomes of groups as well as individual efforts are assessed and valued to the same extent as the retention and reproduction of knowledge. Again the focus is on what should be achieved and the report described four aspects of achievement.

"achievement aspect I

This aspect of achievement is strongly represented in the current 16 plus public examinations. It involves most of all the capacity to express oneself in a written form. It requires the capacity to retain propositional knowledge, to select from such knowledge appropriately in response to a

specified request, and to do so quickly without reference to possible sources of information. The capacity to memorise and organise material is particularly important ...

achievement aspect II

This aspect of achievement is concerned with the capacity to apply knowledge rather than knowledge itself, with the practical rather than the theoretical, with the oral rather than the written. Problem solving and investigational skills are more important than the retention of knowledge. This aspect is to some degree measured in public examinations, but it is often seen as secondary and less important than aspect I ...

achievement aspect III

This aspect is concerned with personal and social skills; the capacity to communicate with others in face-to-face relationships, the ability to co-operate with others in the interests of the group as well as of the individual; initiative, self-reliance and the ability to work alone without close supervision; and the skills of leadership. This aspect of achievement remains virtually untapped by the 16 plus examinations.

achievement aspect IV

This aspect of achievement involves motivation and commitment; the willingness to accept failure without destructive consequences; the readiness to persevere; the self-confidence to learn in spite of the difficulty of the task...In one sense, aspect IV is the most important of all, since without it achievement in the other three aspects is likely to be very limited, both at school and in the future....." (p2)

The committee is concerned that teachers primarily focus on the capacities/skills required for achievement aspect I and are hence comfortable with a narrow range of teaching and assessment methods. Once the range of achievements is broadened and the focus is drawn to achievement aspects III and IV we are back with the estimation of the HMI and others that methodology is critical. Further, as in the ILEA report, the Hargreaves committee address in detail the centrality of skills development and the importance of active learning roles. They raise the concerns expressed in chapter 2 that too many teachers still have a residual contempt for practical and applied activities. The committee argues in a way reminiscent of Adler's column diagram, that the conceptual dichotomy between academic and practical learning must be challenged and overcome.

"It is our view that all subjects have both theoretical and practical or applied elements, that it is undesirable to evacuate any subject of either element, and that teachers should strive to achieve a better balance between theory and practice in all subjects. This will involve a radical overhaul of both the content and the pedagogy to which pupils are exposed. It will require most particularly a move away from teaching via didactic exposition and assessing only academic, theoretical achievement, towards teaching which engages pupils in active practical learning tasks in which the achievement of skills and the outcomes of group as well as individual effort, are assessed and valued to the same extent as the retention and reproduction of knowledge; and teaching in which the aims and objectives of learning are closely linked to the processes by which that learning will take place." (p68)

Sizer (1984) in America also puts the acquisition of certain skills before content, and argues for a similar overhaul of pedagogy. Having worked on The Paideia Proposal Horace's Compromise echoes Adler's manifesto when it argues for study based on three spheres of learning:

1. Development of intellectual skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening, measuring, estimating, calculating, seeing)
2. Acquisition of knowledge
3. Enlargement of understanding of ideas and values

(Sizer, 1984, P99)

The choice of subject matter, Sizer argued, should support students' learning of skills. Skills, Sizer points out, are learned by experience and taught by coaching. Knowledge is taught by telling and explaining while understanding must be stimulated rather than learned and this is achieved through questioning (Sizer, 1984, P106-117). We are back at the critical matter of methodology. The implication for educationalists is that a range of teaching styles must be developed to purposefully facilitate the development of the range of capacities or competencies. This matter will be discussed further in chapter 6.

Competencies

Increasingly competences/competencies becomes the favoured term (the spelling varies). The document Transition: The Curriculum Challenge A Special Study from the European Community's first pilot project programme on transition is a good example and was included in the briefing papers for the Centenary Conference. (Reprinted from Education 1985). Many of the projects developed new courses for 14-18 year olds, particularly for those who leave school at an early age. Two of the questions the study posed were:

- . What competences and knowledge will young people need? and
- . How can they be motivated to attain them?

They answer them by defining the word competences thus: "a convenient term covering the total 'baggage' necessary for use in adult life" (p3) the baggage, it is then maintained, includes:

- . Individual or personal competences:
self-knowledge-strengths/weaknesses, mental and physical; self confidence and autonomy; ability to accept and use criticism; initiative; logical capacity-decision-making, problem solving; living with emotions; understanding and development of physical/health capacities; development of manual skills.
- . Interpersonal competences: understanding of, and feeling for, others; ability to discipline oneself to accept the rules of a group or an organisation; ability to co-operate with others in a common task; ability to articulate ideas in words and to communicate, to listen, to explain, to argue, to read and to write.
- . Understanding and knowledge: understanding of number and basic mathematics; understanding and knowledge of existing kinds of work, and of the organisation of industry, commerce and administration; and of possible developments in the future, especially areas such as information technologies: and of the implications for the kinds of personal and inter-personal competences needed; understanding and knowledge of the alternative forms and patterns of human activity that might replace 'work', and of leisure activities; understanding and knowledge of the nature of personal and family relationships; understanding and knowledge of society as a whole and the individual's role in it" (p3).

This list is put together in a different way from those met so far integrating even more than Adler asked us to do with his three columns, knowledge, skills and understanding and it includes also attitudinal aspects. In fact this way of stating matters highlights the last two intelligences proposed by Howard Gardner,

that is the inter-personal and intra-personal intelligences. These two forms of intelligence Gardner maintains are not well understood, elusive to study, but immensely important in our contemporary society. He describes them thus:

"Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to understand other people: what motivates them, how they work, how to work co-operatively with them. Successful salespeople, politicians, teachers, clinicians and religious leaders are all likely to be individuals with high degrees of interpersonal intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence, a seventh kind of intelligence, is a correlative ability turned inwards. It is a capacity to form an accurate, veridical model of oneself and to be able to use that model to operate effectively in life." (1987, p190)

Furthermore the Transition document goes on, in answering the second question posed above, to stress Gardner's understanding that active practical work is vital to the development of these competences. They state:

"in preparing young people for adult life this knowledge content [which means the facts, skills, knowledge and understandings that young people need] - at least in the form it is usually offered to them - is less important than experiences which are aimed at the development of personal and interpersonal competences. This experience is gained from doing things and interacting with people. In other words, learning methods, not content, are of most importance.

In devising a course, then, the first question is "What situations can we create that will lead to the development of initiative, co-operativeness, self-confidence?" It is then possible to consider methods which will enable the students to acquire the content at the same time as leading to the development of these competences" (p4)

Thus the theoretical discussion of competences is connected here with the implications for methodology and, out of real experience with pilot projects, a sense of how these ideas might be put into practice. The paper further elaborates implications and options for introducing changes to methodology and we will return to them when we discuss implementation.

This developing focus on skills, abilities, capacities, capabilities or competencies has indicated a growing effort to describe with increasing specificity what is meant by the purposes of schools. In 1985 the Quality of Education in Australia report picks up key words met earlier "outcomes" (Husen 1979, Burgess and Adams 1980) and 'competencies' (H.M.I. and U.S. College Board 1983). Emphasis is placed by QERC on the results of learning. Five general competencies are required:

1. Acquiring information
2. Conveying information
3. Applying logical processes
4. Undertaking tasks as an individual
5. Undertaking tasks as a member of a group.

(QERC, 1985, Pp70-71)

QERC acknowledges that additional competencies are needed by individuals as they undertake their various roles as members of society:

1. Workplace role
2. On-going educational role
3. Community role

4. Personal role

(QERC, 1985, P84)

Thus it can be seen that this attempt to be specific about purposes is both national and international. The 1983 HMI Report is clear about the anguish and rewards of trying to put curriculum ideas into practice. Hargreaves in London and Goodlad andSizer in America, have also written reports which are connected closely to a sense of real schools and teachers. The QERC report does not have that background and its style captures a more utilitarian and instrumental thrust. It does not communicate the same sensitivity, which exists in the HMI, Hargreaves, Goodlad andSizer reports of the extremely complex human enterprise schooling is. As the Commonwealth Schools Commission notes in its discussion paper on the QERC Report (September 1985):

"It would be unfortunate if instrumental concerns for producing economically useful citizens over-shadowed cultural and personal goals, some of which are mentioned in Chapter 5 of the QERC Report. Because of the nature of its inquiry, QERC has not strongly addressed the significance of worthwhile, culturally rich, content and the application of processes which generate the capacity for critical reflections and greater cultural literacy."

(C.S.C. 1985, P5)

Perhaps in its attempt to specify clear purposes QERC has tipped the balance slightly. In the current debate it is important, in my view, to keep in mind the rich variety of areas experienced as well as a list of purposes when devising a curriculum which will have coherence, unity and meaning for the adolescent.

And this is precisely what Secondary Education: The Future tries to do. Arising out of the description of fields of knowledge and experience and interconnected with them are what the authors describe as the competencies and characteristics that are

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essential for life and work in our society" (3.4) In the January edition the term "competencies" is defined in a general way as "the broad groupings of skills that cross subject boundaries" (3.4.1). The document goes on to echo what we have described above as a developing view that the competencies "are not at least as important as knowledge itself" (3.4.1) adding most importantly the assertion:

"If they are not developed and used, knowledge will remain inert, and cannot be applied" (3.4.1)

which requires an applied curriculum and the overhaul of pedagogy referred to above by Hargreaves and others.

In specifying the competencies Secondary Education: The Future suggests the notion of an initial stage in the development of competencies when the young learner "cracks the code" so to speak in learning to talk, to read, to write and to calculate. For most this stage is accomplished by the end of primary school and it is on this foundation of an initial stage that the more complex and interconnected sets of skills, abilities, and competencies rest, that is the "...competencies that enable students to extend further the ability to learn, and go on learning, throughout life". (3.4.3) It is repeated that what is being described is an across the curriculum matter applying to all fields of knowledge and experience and hence to all subjects as conventionally conceived in the present organization of secondary schools.

The list of competencies which follows this introduction is borrowed and developed from that conceived by the QERC committee. The broad headings are:

- . Acquiring information;
- . Conveying information;
- . Applying logical processes;
- . Undertaking practical tasks as a member of a group;

that is the QERC derived group, to which the local authors have added:

- . making judgements and decisions; and
- . working creatively.

These competencies refer to general essential processes and attempt to capture the complex inter-relationship of the skills of reading and talking etc. For instance if we refer back to the lists of skills, others have developed and apply them under the heading Acquiring Information we might find the following skills combining to achieve the acquisition of information namely:

- listening
- reading - literal/inferential etc
- read fellow workers
- observing/seeing
- calculating
- studying
- imaginative
- organisational
- social skills ('reading' people - eliciting information etc)
- problem solving and creative
- exercising critical judgement

and as the HMI observed this list is probably NOT exhaustive and the skills listed cluster together in a variety of ways depending on the task, that is they tend to be context bound. The Secondary Education: The Future list of competencies provides a frame which highlights the complexity of what should be being achieved by secondary schools. The rubrics under each heading attempt to move the focus from QERC's more instrumental outcome orientation to defining important processes thus:

"Acquiring Information

This includes listening accurately and critically to oral presentations; gathering data from computer information systems; identifying the main ideas from print and graphic material as well as from film, television and radio

presentations; reading different kinds of fiction and non-fiction; observing and recording practical experiences" (3.4.3)

Nevertheless to be pragmatic this frame may be too sophisticated and not closely enough linked with classroom practice. The competencies are described in very broad terms, despite the rubrics which point to examples. I believe we need to develop carefully and thoughtfully, more specific lists under the general headings such as those compiled by the Further Education Unit in the United Kingdom and the College Board in the United States if the competencies are to be "encouraged and developed deliberately and systematically through example and through the courses that are provided" (3.5). Furthermore, if the clusters of skills which combine together under a competency heading are likely to be context bound any general list may need to be amended (with possible additions and subtractions) for each field of knowledge and experience, for each subject in the present conventional school organisation (because fields of knowledge and experience and subjects, as we discussed earlier, are not necessarily the same thing) and for each age grade. The intention of this section and the focus on competencies is critical for the success of Secondary Education: The Future. If their development is "not to be left to chance" (3.5) the terminology must be comprehensible and able to be applied by teachers.

Characteristics

The matter of attitudes and values which shape, colour and interconnect with the competencies are dealt with separately as "characteristics that embody the spirit and values on which our society must be built" (3.4.4). The characteristic ways of acting are described as:

"Acting autonomously

This includes displaying initiative, self-confidence and control, resilience, and entrepreneurial skill across a range of human activities.

. Acting responsibly

This includes considering how actions will affect others as well as oneself; being tolerant or firm when appropriate; and valuing democratic processes and fundamental human rights.

. Showing care and concern for other people

This includes being sensitive to the thoughts and feelings of others; respecting different opinions and ways of doing things; being friendly and helpful; and being able to express love and affection.

. Being concerned about values and beliefs

This includes examining how ideas and actions reflect beliefs; making moral judgements; and appreciating the values, rights and obligations of ourselves and others".

(3.4.4)

Here we have articulated the underpinning ethical domain which was excluded from the fields of knowledge and experience. The January edition adds "valuing democratic processes and fundamental human rights" and "making moral judgements" which in part addresses the concerns raised in the second chapter of this dissertation. Here too we get closest to the notion of a systematic "curriculum of care" which Cove (1985 (a)) suggested in one of the papers for the centenary conference as an antidote to the stress on instrumental technological requirements. This is a critical list of characteristics, attitudes, values and ways of being which carry implicit messages about the kind of society we want our young people to inhabit. There are major implications for school and classroom organisation and provision if the statement "They are learned through participation in the daily life of the school as well as through planned programs of study" (3.4.5 my emphasis) is to be realised in practice. This section of the document provides that vital

balance which was the concern of chapter two so that a focus on competencies which can slip in its rhetoric into a narrow instrumental argument for improving national production is combined with a concern for the quality of human life. The principle is stated firmly,

"The competencies and characteristics should be encouraged and developed deliberately and systematically through example, and through the courses that are provided. Their development must not be left to chance." (3.5)

The implications for planning, in an across the curriculum, whole school manner, are enormous. One further consideration. Do characteristics as defined here belong separately or are they an aspect of competency? Secondary Education: The Future acknowledges the interconnectedness of competencies and characteristics (3.4.5) but organises them separately. Could this be a conceptual error? The QERC definition of competencies, you will recall, is: "the ability to use knowledge and skills effectively to achieve a purpose". It might be argued that this is a somewhat mechanistic definition and that it is unlikely for the purpose to be effectively achieved unless attitudes and values are also brought to bear on the process. Hence a revised definition of competencies might read: "the ability to combine knowledge, skills and attitudes, effectively to achieve a purpose". This would fit with Raven's definition of competency which we met earlier where he explains that it involves complex integrated cognitive, affective and behavioural styles and also with the Transition: the curriculum Challenge document. Perhaps what this amounts to is an understanding that definitions of competencies and characteristics and their component aspects are interim as we grapple with ways of capturing and articulating the variety of purposes and outcomes of secondary schooling.

Clearly what we have in Secondary Education: The Future is one way of describing competencies. Nevertheless the tone of the document is dogmatic "The most important of these competencies are:". However what we have here is a map and not the territory -

a frame or model by which to be more specific about the purposes and processes of schooling. The Hargreaves committee comment, after defining their aspects of achievement, that the scheme is "crude and open to many criticisms. The distinctions are analytical and cannot readily be distinguished in classrooms" (p2). Understandably the authors of Secondary Education: The Future did not wish to sound so tentative in what is certainly a critical and profound part of their enunciation of guiding principles. Nevertheless what they have offered is but one way of describing systematically and specifically the complex inter-connected theoretical and practical learnings which "extend further the ability to learn, and go on learning throughout life" (3.4.3).

Organisation

In this chapter I have placed the key ideas of the curriculum section, "fields of Knowledge and Experience" and "Competencies and Characteristics" into the context of national and international discussion. These ideas are organising tools by which to bring coherence, unity and meaning to the curriculum (Hughes, 1985b). One major practical implication of these ideas, as we have seen, is that schools must engage in systematic and deliberate across curriculum planning if implementation of the principles is to take place. No suggestions for this are given. However the next principle of the curriculum section and its supporting comments do come close to explicit direction.

"All courses must contain clear statements of purpose and the criteria for assessment. (3.6)

The statements of purpose should show:

- . what the course is intended to develop in the student;
- . the competencies, ideas and principles included in the course;
- . the kinds of learning activities and teaching styles that will be used; and

- . the relationship of the courses with other courses in the curriculum.

These statements should enable students and parents as well as teachers to make informed decisions about the learning program. (3.6.1)

Each student's achievements should be assessed by teachers and by the students themselves according to the following criteria:

- . the extent to which the student has developed the competencies and characteristics;
- . the extent to which the student can apply the central ideas and principles from the fields of knowledge and experience;
- . the extent to which the student knows the content of the courses studied." (3.6.2)

This clarifies and expands the earlier versions in the Discussion Paper (4.4 and 4.5) and is a direct connection with the proposals being made by the Schools Board in their 1986 document which recommends that the competencies (but not the characteristics) be incorporated into the objectives for syllabuses and provide criteria for assessment. Hence the theories proposed by Kirst and Meister, referred to in the introductory chapter to this dissertation, are translated into practice. That is the certification changes which will force action to take place are given explicit place in the policy document and the two proposals are tied together. A further point may be made. These statements about purpose and assessment are expressed with some precision (although it is interesting to note that the statements of purpose make no mention on how the courses might derive from the fields of knowledge and experience nor do they refer to characteristics) and could provide an agenda for the second level department meetings which Lawton proposes.

All through this chapter I have commented on the practical implications of the key ideas, of how these ideas demand across

subject boundary approaches as well as intra-departmental review such as could be guided by principle 3.6. The matter of school organisation becomes critical. Not only for the translation of these ideas into learning opportunities for all children, but also for the necessary teacher learning and planning which must take place. Hence the final principle in this section on the curriculum appears to grossly under-state the matter.

"The organisation and curriculum of the school must be flexible enough to cater for the needs, abilities and interests of all students."

This matter of "flexible organisation" will be discussed in the following chapter which deals with students and in the subsequent chapter on teachers.

CHAPTER 5

ACTIVE LEARNERS

Clearly, the recent educational reports including Secondary Education: The Future maintain that young people should be active learners. Educators are particularly concerned by the general passivity of many young people in schools. John Goodlad in America writes, "To be avoided is the daily repetition of classroom activities that encourage passivity and role behaviour on the part of students" (1984 P.104) TheodoreSizer concurs, "We should expect them (adolescents) to learn more while being taught less Too much giving breeds docility, and docility of students' minds is a widespread reality in American High Schools" (1984, P.34). In a companion volume to Sizer's Horace's Compromise titled The Shopping Mall High School: Winners and Losers in the Educational Market Place (1985) another American Arthur Powell vividly describes the tacit bargains struck in classrooms which allow for an avoidance of learning. Across the Atlantic Her Majesty's Inspectors observed, "Some children consider that the message of secondary schools is boredom and that what a pupil learns is how to endure it; or that the message is how to get things right and what pupils need to learn is how to disguise the fear and failure of having got things wrong" (1983, P.42). The Tasmanian Scott Report Committee in 1977 was thinking along similar lines. Early in the report they commented that the school should be a place, "where emphasis is at least as much on action as on information, at least as much on giving students a chance to perform responsible adult tasks as on making students be docile pupils" (1977, P.20) Docility is to be eschewed!

Active Learning

What is active learning? The Scott report begins chapter 3 by discussing the importance of the teacher knowing how his pupils learn, "The key appears to be in the teacher's awareness of 'the state of mind' of the learner - that is in the teacher's readiness

to respond to the interests, motivations and degree of maturity of the learner" (p.79) The Committee shows it is sensitive to the complexity of what is meant by passive and active learning. They acknowledge that a seemingly passive student who spends most of his time in listening, written work and preparing assignments and very little in questioning, discussing, drawing, performing, role playing and making things may well be quite "active" mentally. Engagement of minds with learning rather than overt signs of activity is what is meant by active learning.

Secondary Education: The Future does not explicitly espouse active learning styles, nor does it articulate a theory of learning on which the principles in the document are based. Nevertheless, implicit in the document is a clear notion of active learners. This notion is implicit in the statement of fields of knowledge and experience as discussed in the last chapter. Sometimes the acknowledgement of what might be termed a theory of active learning surfaces more explicitly. For instance:

"...it is essential that students learn more about it (i.e. technology), and come to understand it through practical experiences" 3.2.5

"special emphasis on practical studies in citizenship and democratic processes" 3.2.7

"continue to have first hand experience of roles, rights and responsibilities in the work place" 3.2.8.

In the section describing the competencies the notion of active learning styles becomes more apparent. The descriptions of what each competency involves is made in terms of process. However the idea of active learning is left implicit. Perhaps some explicit statement on learning would have provided a clearer frame in which to consider the teaching and learning of adolescents. The place for such a statement could well be in the section on the student.

The Hargreaves Committee (1984) found it was necessary to discuss active learning at some length in their ILEA report. As we saw in the last chapter the committee agree with the opinion discussed in

chapter I that there is residual contempt by many secondary school teachers for the practical. They state their position strongly and were quoted at length in the previous chapter. The last part of the quote is repeated here. There needs to be a move, "towards teaching which engages pupils in active practical learning tasks in which the achievement of skills and the outcomes of group as well as individual effort, are assessed and valued to the same extent as the retention and reproduction of knowledge; and teaching in which the aims and objectives of learning are closely linked to the processes by which that learning will take place." (p.68 3.10.6).

This is presumably the argument which underpins 3.6 of Secondary Education: The Future

"All courses must contain clear statements of purpose and the criteria for assessment"

and the supporting statements in 3.6.1 and 3.6.2.

The Victorian Government's Ministerial Paper Number 6 (1986), like Secondary Education: The Future is a spare statement of guiding principles devoid of the lengthy supporting arguments found in the Hargreaves (1984) report and the earlier Tasmanian report (Scott, 1977) for instance. The Victorians state their principles on learning as follows:

"...Approaches to teaching and learning should be suited to the individual needs, abilities and cultural understandings of students and to the objectives of the course. These approaches should enable students to:

learn in a variety of ways

- . gather and analyse evidence and form generalizations;
- . analyse and evaluate arguments;
- . question and form values, ideas and opinions;
- . learn through both personal experience and instruction;

- . experience the usefulness and limitations of various modes of enquiry;
- . learn in situations and settings both inside and outside the school; and
- . use a variety of media for understanding and communicating ideas and information;

(Ministerial Paper No. 6, 10.1, P.15)

This report was followed by a supporting booklet titled Learning and learning Styles which makes explicit the understandings about learning which inform the ministerial paper and are to be the basis for future teaching. This booklet defines learning as follows:

- ". Learning is a mentally active, not passive, process. Therefore provision should be made for students to be actively involved, to make discoveries, to ask questions.
- . There are two key facets of learning, the process and the product, and neither can be considered apart from the other.
- . Learning is a cumulative process and learning situations should build on what the learner already knows". (p.33)

The booklet goes on to discuss the nature of learning stating explicitly points which are similar to some sprinkled through Secondary Education: The Future such as:

- ". Effective learning is closely related to the learner's self-esteem. (Compare 4.1.3)
- . All learners, regardless of age, ability and level of motivation, need to experience success. (Compare 4.7.1)

- . Motivation is a key factor in learning. The motivated student is more likely to be actively involved, to ask questions, to seek links. The interest student is much more likely to learn and remember than the unmotivated student. (Compare 4.3.1)
- . Since involvement is crucial to learning, students learn more by taking responsibility for their own learning." (p.33) (Compare 4.5.3)

The booklet continues by defining the processes which are involved in learning. These ideas emanate in part from the language learning studies brought together in the collective wisdom of the Bullock Report, A Language for Life which also informed much of the reasoning in the 1977 Tasmanian Report on Secondary Education. Much of this thinking about learning would be new to many secondary teachers, for instance:

- ". Learning involves risk-taking ...
- . Error is a normal part of learning ...
- . The exploratory stage in learning is very important ...
- . Remembering and forgetting are normal parts of learning...." (Learning and learning styles, p34)

There is important information here which provides a frame for thinking about teaching. The knowledge and implications for methodology apply to all teachers across the curriculum. This is not a new idea. The recommendation for a policy for language across the curriculum was made by the Bullock Report (1975, 138 and 139, P529) after which the "Language Across the Curriculum Movement" was an important curriculum focus of the late 70's. At essence the key idea was that active learning takes place through and with language and is hence the responsibility of all teachers (Marland, 1978). At the 1986 conference "Learn to Write: Write to Learn" in Sydney the comment was made at a plenary session that Tasmania had got further than most Australian states with the communication of the theories given succinct expression

in A Language for Life. However the theories can be found in practice more readily in primary schools than secondary. Heather Felton in her study of the implementation of the language policies in primary schools writes:

"In the view of both teacher and principals the language program was a quality innovation which passed the test of teachers 'practicality ethic'. In fact many of the components, like process writing, were perceived as being 'so much common sense' even before teachers tried them out in the classroom that teachers wondered why they had not always been using them." (Felton, 1986, p274)

But even in primary Schools the across the curriculum results of the language policy are problematic (i.e. the influence of the theories in areas other than "English"). In secondary schools the theories appear to have touched only the surface of English departments. Nevertheless these ideas need to be revisited for a theory of learning to be articulated.

The point I want to emphasise is that the many educational reports and writing on secondary education of which Secondary Education: The Future is an example are stressing the need for young people to be actively involved in the learning process and that this is such a critical underpinning idea that it requires amplification - if not in the document itself then in some supporting literature.

This belief in the importance of active learning is not a new concept but a very old one which has for years battled with what has been called "the 'mill applied to knowledge' with all the implications that knowledge is a stable commodity to be processed into passive children" (Bloomer, 1979, P.31). A notion of active learning was part of the beliefs of those educationalists labelled progressives beginning with Rousseau's Emile (1772) and featuring names such as Pestalozzi, Froebel and A.S. Neil who encouraged educational experiences rather than the accumulation of factual knowledge. In Dewey's writing education was seen as a way of improving society, and learning was seen as an active, social

process involving projects and problem solving strategies. As we have seen the recent reports on secondary education are adding their voices to this tradition and as was noted in the previous chapter once active learning is the focus methodology becomes critical. This will be discussed further in the following chapter.

In this chapter I want to explore what is known about today's adolescents and how this knowledge contributes to the arguments for them to be actively involved in the learning process. These matters will be linked with the guiding principles enunciated in the section of Secondary Education: The Future, "The Student".

Adolescence

The young appear to have always represented a problem to their elders. The years are ones in which a sense of self is being developed while the body is biologically stormed by forces previously dormant. Adolescence is

"the time of life when we find out who we are becoming, what we are good at, what and whom we like. What happens in these years profoundly affects what follows ... It is a time of trying on masks" (Sizer, 1984, P.1 and P.42)

While their common puberty and the trying on of masks of some of life's opportunities link young people, in the period of life we now call adolescence, across the centuries the structure of today's society, particularly the prolonged postponement after puberty of full adult status, places additional strains on today's youth. The wide choice of masks is another feature which is a relatively recent phenomenon of Western like society. Boys and girls are no longer confined in their choice to the masks worn by their parents but might sample more widely. However the variety of possible roles presents problems too. As a recent study of adolescence explained,

"In a constantly changing and diversified society such as ours, it is not easy to attain a consistent, comfortable

interpretation of oneself. Yet without a cohesive sense of self, life passes by without pattern or purpose, a welter of unrelated actions and impulses; and one might suddenly wake up in middle age to the realization that life no longer makes sense" (Csikszentmihalyi and Larson, 1984)

Secondary schools then are dealing with a profound period in the lives of young people. On this argument they have a responsibility to facilitate the trying on of masks and the development of a stable identity. And teachers and administrators, an increasingly aging population, must do this with attitudes shaped by childhoods rather different from those of the young people in their care.

For it is possible to argue that today's adolescents have rather more in common with their medieval counterparts than the pre and post-war babies who are now their parents and teachers. This argument is persuasively explored by Neil Postman who has developed the fascinating ideas of Phillipe Aries. In his book Centuries of Childhood (1973) Aries explains how in the medieval period what we would describe as a concept of childhood did not exist. He is careful to make the point that the idea of childhood is NOT to be confused with affection for children. Rather it corresponds to an "awareness of the particular nature of childhood, that particular nature which distinguishes the child from the adult, even the young adult". (Aries, 1973, P.125). Little ones did not count because they could so quickly disappear. The feeling appears to have been that one must have several children in order to keep just a few. Neil Postman develops these ideas in his book The Disappearance of Childhood (1983) arguing that "it is a mistake to give too much importance to the high mortality rate of children as a way of explaining the absence of the idea of childhood" (Postman, 1983, P.18). The other significant ingredients persuasively argued for by Postman are: the absence of literacy, the absence of the idea of education, and the absence of the idea of shame.

During the fifteenth, sixteenth and seventeenth centuries Aries describes how a new sensibility evolved in the upper classes leading to an importance being accorded to the child's personality which had not been seen before. Postman adds the explanation of the invention of the printing press with moveable type because:

"The printing press created a new definition of adulthood based on reading competence, and, correspondingly, a new conception of childhood based on reading incompetence." (emphasis Postman's, 1983, P.18).

As the adults of the upper classes began to set their children apart they began to foster learned interest in them. By the sixteenth century moralists and pedagogues began to write about "the innocence of childhood". By the eighteenth century this notion, which informs some attitudes today, had become commonplace. From the eighteenth century we see the particularisation and separation of larger and larger groups of children for longer and longer periods of time from purposeful interactions with adult communities. Adults born pre and immediately post world war two are perhaps the last generation to belong comfortably within this epoch.

For the point of this historical background is that Postman and other writers are now arguing that the electronic communication technology of more recent years, particularly television, is leading, in Postman's words, to the disappearance of childhood, the disappearance of an idea, a social artefact. In other words we are returning in some ways to attitudes common in the middle ages. Postman's argument rests on the following points:

1. Television erodes the dividing line between childhood and adulthood in three ways all having to do with its undifferentiated accessibility:
 - a) it requires no instructions to grasp its form;
 - b) it does not make complex demands on either mind or behaviour, and

- c) it does not segregate its audience.
2. Because television is an open admission technology to which there are no physical, economic, cognitive, or imaginative restraints it opens secrets with the following consequences:
- a) the idea of shame is diluted and demystified,
 - b) diminution in the significance of manners e.g. linguistic restraints,
 - c) the authority of adulthood and the curiosity of childhood loses ground,
 - d) children develop what may be called adult attitudes - from cynicism to indifference - towards political leaders and towards the political process itself, and,
 - e) television undermines any reasonable concept of mature adulthood (Postman, 1983, pp.80-97).

We are left, Postman concludes, with the adult-child, for:
"Everywhere one looks, it may be seen that the behaviour, language, attitudes, and desires - and even the physical appearance - of adults and children are becoming increasingly indistinguishable" (Postman, 1983, P.4)

Another American, Robert Hampel, who was involved withSizer and Powell in the Study of High Schools, wrote a history of American high schools since 1940 called The Last Little Citadel (1986) in which he too notes the phenomenon of the child/adult and adult/child. He writes:

"In the late 1960's and early 1970's, a combination of related changes modified important aspects of traditional age roles. Because of drug use, sexual experimentation, a welcoming job market, and shifting parental values,

adolescents came to enjoy some prerogatives and experiences previously reserved for adults. At roughly the same time, many adults adopted curiously adolescent forms of behaviour, undergoing identity crises, job changes, explorations of feelings, and marital realignments. The gulf between young and old narrowed, and educators were not as impervious in the 1970's as in the 1950's to their clients' personal lives" (Hampel, 1986, p79)

Hampel goes on to acknowledge the pervasive influence of television and describes how subtle shifts blur the distinctions between adult and adolescent roles. He comments on the way these changes affect the balance of power in schools commenting with Postman's words:

"The partial disappearance of childhood, coupled with the adolescent flavouring of adulthood, undermined the old paternalism. Authority had to be rebuilt on new foundations". (Hampel, 1986, p92)

True, both these authors are American. Nevertheless, I am convinced that Postman's thesis and Hampel's insights are very perceptive analyses which have direct implications for the nature of schooling. If we have now, in Tasmania, even in embryo form, the adult-child of Postman's thesis, then separating this adolescent group into a system which rests unthinkingly on traditional concepts of childhood and adulthood can only lead to further tension and lack of direction.

The school environment

And it is precisely direction which Secondary Education: The Future seeks to give. The authors of this document appear to have absorbed much of these understandings about adolescence and hence provide a section which specifically focuses on students. They appear to believe it is possible to create positive social and educational value from involving students in the processes of schools thus giving them the chance to exert more control over

their own school lives. The section begins with a statement added to the original discussion paper which brings together three important themes:

"Students in Secondary Schools face the challenges of adolescence and participation in adult life, as well as the challenges of school learning." (4.)

Again, as we saw in the discussion on active learning, the specifics of the relationship between adults and adolescents in schools is largely left implicit by the authors of Secondary Education: The Future. Authority, as Hampel pointed out has to be built on new foundations. Secondary Education: The Future discusses foundations in terms of creating a supportive environments that "strongly attract students to learning" (4.1.2) Relationships between students and teachers are to be "caring and positive" (4.1.4). The level of adolescent responsibility is made clearer in places as we shall see but the language on the whole is very general. Bloomer (1979) who was not writing an educational report which needed to pass the scrutinizing lens of politicians was blunter about foundations:

"Generally speaking there are few opportunities for youth to maintain its independence and exercise its power within the framework of the school. Is it too outrageous to claim that schools have been preoccupied with containing and dominating pupils and that, to help alleviate feelings of powerlessness and alienation there is a need for i) greater recognition of the potential value of pupil contributions to the decision making process; ii) the delegation of meaningful powers and responsibilities; iii) more legitimate opportunities for pupils to experience their powers and to reason and negotiate with teachers?" (Bloomer, 1979. P.71)

The Hargreaves report (1984) answers that Bloomer's claim is not outrageous. In another lengthy discussion, this time on pupil involvement and participation, the committee state clearly that, "We anticipate that few people will dispute our view that all

pupils need opportunities to rehearse adult roles and responsibilities in real contexts, and that the school as a community provides its own kind of reality in which pupils can practice taking responsibility, democratic debate, decision-making and coping with its outcome, good or bad" (Hargreaves, 1984, 3.12.2, P.76). They continue with a summary of the likely debate over the nature of the decisions about which pupils should be consulted, and the degree of autonomy they should be granted noting that, "The question of pupil autonomy versus pupil dependence is the interface between curricular and pastoral systems". Secondary Education: The Future recognises the importance of the pastoral system in their focus on the student. In placing the establishment of a supportive social environment as a foundation for achievement the document maintains that 'deliberate action must be taken to....provide for personal tutoring and counselling, and continuity in teacher-student relationships". (4.1.4) An interesting example of the possible harmony which can exist between the curricular and pastoral system was cited in the Times Educational Supplement. The article was published after the earliest attempts at articulating this section of the document were written (April 1986) but give a practical example of the sort of social environment the authors might have had in mind - where curricular and pastoral concerns work together. The school is Biddick School in Washington, Tyne and Wear and it is divided into tutor groups with an average size of about 26. These groups remain with the same tutor throughout their school lives. "The divide between the personal and social education that goes on largely in the tutorial lessons and the subject based curriculum is scarcely recognised ... The aim is to make the whole process 'organic'" (Baker, N., Times Educational Supplement, April 1986) and the learning process for teachers is a vital aspect of the school's success.

Hargreaves continues to answer Bloomer's question by maintaining that "one means of providing opportunities for pupils to engage in decision-making affecting the life of the schools is the school council..." (3.12.8, P.77) Again this, and the subsequent comments and examples drawn from schools in the ILEA Report are

rather more explicit than the more general discussion of a supportive social environment which we find in Secondary Education: The Future. School Councils and involvement in special decision making committees is also becoming a feature of schools in Australia. They are one means of giving pupils a degree of power and responsibility, such as Bloomer was asking for, and experience of democratic procedures such as Secondary Education: The Future suggested in 3.2.7. In 1984 the Australian Government inaugurated the Participation and Equity Program (PEP) as a specific purpose program to operate in both secondary schools and colleges. One of the intentions was to increase student involvement in decisions about how the program would be implemented. The problem has been to ensure that this involvement constitutes real and not token participation. The establishment of formal participating structures is necessary but not sufficient for real participation to occur. Deliberate and systematic strategies need to be developed (Parker, 1986). As the authors of Secondary Education: The Future recognised "Creating a supportive social environment is one of the most important tasks for a school - a task that schools must work at continuously" (4.1.2 P.19 emphasis mine). It is specifics which are lacking in the local document. The notion of a supportive social environment appears to acknowledge that today's adolescent ought to be participating in and contributing to the school's decision making process. Rutter's substantial study (1979) bears out this contention: "The study findings showed that schools in which a high proportion of children held some kind of position of responsibility in the school system had better outcomes with respect to both pupil behaviours and examination success" (Rutter, 1979, P.197). Nevertheless Secondary Education: The Future leaves the reader to determine what an environment which strongly attracts students to learning would look like.

Negotiation

Bloomer also recommended in the blunt claim quoted above that students should be provided with opportunities to reason and negotiate with their teachers. Negotiation has been part of

educational practice in Australia for more than a decade, particularly in Victoria where Year 12 work in some schools came under the organisation of "Schools Year 12 and Tertiary Entrance Certificate" (STC) which involved a negotiated curriculum. In Tasmania ground work to negotiation has been laid on which the principles in Secondary Education: The Future can grow. Two publications on this theme have been produced in Tasmania to communicate theory and practical ideas from practising teachers. The Bridge to Them, Negotiated Experiences in the Classroom (1985) was a Southern Project led by Lucy Fisher and Negotiated Learning Experiences in the Classroom (1986) are findings of the Northern Tasmanian Negotiated Learning Project led by northern language consultant Tamara Paterson. Both derive inspiration from Negotiating the Curriculum (1982) edited by Garth Boomer. Negotiation was defined by the southern project team as "a conversation with students about content, method and assessment. When all views have been shared, agreement is reached on ways to proceed" (Fisher, 1985, p7). The northern team argues that:

"the value of negotiation is that it 'empowers' our students with the means to learn more effectively. This process involves:

- . clarifying the purpose and direction of students' work;
- . using the background knowledge or previous experiences of students as the foundation for their new learning; and
- . allowing students more active participation in what they learn, when they learn, how they learn and how their learning will be assessed." (Paterson, 1986, p2)

Teachers who use negotiation maintain that it is important that students feel free to question and make mistakes. This means that time must be provided for students to think and reflect about how they learn and about what they learned. The argument, supported as we have clearly seen by many writers on secondary schooling, is that learning is an active process. Negotiating the curriculum

involves students more actively in their own learning. Secondary Education: The Future does not use the term "negotiation" but instead uses the word "consultation".

"Courses should be selected and developed in consultation with students and their parents" 4.3

Students will do their best when they feel involved in decisions about their work and are strongly motivated to learn. They should feel that they are part of a joint enterprise with their teachers ..." 4.3.1

This is probably a wise choice of terminology despite the term "negotiation" having currency. As the authors of Negotiating the Curriculum, a supportive booklet for the implementation of Ministerial Paper Number 6, point out the word 'negotiation', when used in every day life, suggests bargaining between equals to resolve an issue or dispute. "It is a word appropriate to discussions between unions and employers over a pay claim, for example, but it does not necessarily reflect the nature of the relationship between teachers and students in a classroom". (p8) What Ministerial Paper No. 6 is concerned about is striking a balance between 'content, to which all students have a right, and the process of involving students in their own learning" (P8) There is no question of negotiating down to study material that is not challenging or worthwhile. As Secondary Education: The Future puts it all young people should be developing their "capacity for independent action and learning in the pursuit of this individual levels of excellence" (4.2.1). Consultation and co-operative planning, which is to include parents, is thus placed within a frame which aims for excellence.

What this amounts to in effect is a specific strategy for treating young people in more adult ways to allow for participation in decision making processes and provide for consultation or negotiation over courses so that teachers and students reach "a shared understanding about the work required, how it should be done and how it will be assessed" (4.3.1). These processes provide mechanisms for young people to actively participate in

social contexts and experience aspects of democratic processes. This approach is strongly supported in Education for Capability which was referred to in Chapter 2. In the introduction Tyrrell Burgess claims that, "education will improve only if learners are able to take more responsibility for their own learning" (p6.) Such strategies should address Sizer's contention that, "High Schools must respect adolescents more and patronise them less. The best respect is high expectations for them and a level of accountability more adult in its demand than childlike" (Sizer 1984, P.34).

Motivation

The vital factor which threads itself through all that has already been said about students' involvement with their learning, participation in decision making etc. is the likely increase in motivation which results. Hargreaves (1984) as we saw in the previous chapter placed motivation as a critical achievement which schools must facilitate and foster. "For some pupils come to their school without such motivation, yet the school succeeds in generating it in them and, in such circumstances, both the school and the pupils have made an important achievement" (Hargreaves, 1984 P.2). Rutter's extensive study of London schools (1979) bears out that in even difficult social contexts the adults in some schools can increase motivation, confidence and subsequently learning of the young people in their care. An extensive study of adolescence in Chicago by Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi and Reed Larson, Being Adolescent, Conflict and Growth in the Teenage Years (1984) indicates that adults must accept the responsibility for the instigation of deliberate and systematic strategies to develop motivation in young people. This study describes how adolescents need help in directing their attention and in working out how to expend their psychic energy. Adolescents find themselves in a "labyrinth of conflicting choices" and this leads to bad moods, anger, irritability etc. all well known states of adolescence in our western late twentieth century society. Bad moods, passivity, lack of motivation and unfocussed attentions are the four dimensions of what Csikszentmihalyi and Larson call "psychic

entropy" (P.21) which refers to conflicting information in consciousness which reduces the person's capacity to do work and produces unpleasant experiences. While this appears to be a necessary part of adolescence it should not become a consistent habit. Yet the close studies of high schools conducted by Goodlad,Sizer, Powell and the HMI indicate that many schools appear to be fostering just such a habit with large numbers of their young people. Powell et al's The Shopping Mall High School illustrates vividly the situation of the unspecial, the middle majority in schools. These students are generally little trouble and satisfied with their school experiences but what alarmed the authors was their view that their school experience was devoid of serious educational engagement. In making accommodation to the diversity of students schools have become educationally neutral and failed to press for the development of full intellectual capacity. Csikszentmihalyi and Larson commented that when such a lack of engagement is allowed to be habitual;

"a teenager is developing attentional habits that might interfere with his ability to function well as an adult. If a teenager is always based in school and nowhere learns habits of mental discipline, it is unlikely that he later will be able to tackle complex tasks requiring the use of thought" (Csikszentmihalyi and Larson 1984 P.22)

In fact such schools might be described as breeding grounds for the "mental midgets" which Cove was quoted discussing in chapter one. This kind of school background is not adequate for the preparation of citizens in a democratic state in a future characterised by change and uncertainty.

The role of schools and the adults in schools in partnership with parents and adults in the community is vital to rectify any tendency towards educational neutrality. Already I have made a connection between today's young and medieval youngsters. The historian Barbara Tuckman explores the analogy between the two periods in her book A Distant Mirror. The 14th century like the present times is an uncertain period. The similarities are

numerous except in one essential matter, the transition of the young into their adult roles. From about the age of eight the young male leaves home and takes on adult tasks modelled by adults (pp52-53). The young take on their occupations and join working communities. The partnership of adults necessary to provide meaningful occupations for today's young will be explored further in chapter 7. For the moment we should note that in today's secondary schools it is the peer influence which is strongest. As Csikszentmihalyi and Larson point out,

"In all societies since the beginning of time adolescents have learned to become adults by observing, imitating, and interacting with grown-ups around them. The self is shaped and honed by feedback from men and women who already know who they are, and can help the young person find out who he or she is going to be. It is therefore startling how little time these teenagers spend in the company of adults."

David Hargreaves points out in The Challenge for the Comprehensive School that the large amount of time spent in peer groups is a way for the young to recover a sense of solidarity and is an attempt to give themselves a sense of community not provided by the adult world (Chapter 2). But the peer group can be a distraction from learning. Goodlad,Sizer and Powell all explore the important place of the peer group in schools. Goodlad's study found that in Junior and Senior high school young people are excessively preoccupied with physical appearance, popularity in the peer group, and games and athletics. In fact in answer to the question 'What is the one best thing about this school?' the most significantly common answer was 'my friends' (Goodlad, 1984, p77). Csikszentmihalyi and Larson's study helps us understand why friends are so important but also how friends can draw attention away from an engagement with learning. The Chicago study observes that adolescents crave the companionship of friends and the authors ask why it is so important. They answer,

"Friends are usually peers that is people of the same age, with similar backgrounds and interests. Just to sit around

talking with them becomes great fun. Because they know the same teacher, are aware of the idiosyncracies of school, of school mates, and have watched the same T.V. shows, they have enough in common to share and validate each other's reality" (p156).

The study continues to explore how companionship with peers can be corrupting and drain energy and motivation from the learning process. The authors claim that the subdivision of schools into subject lesson and the frenetic movement between classrooms with peers diverts energy because;

"much of the time spent in school has nothing to do with learning, but is taken up by walking to and from classes, open periods and lunchtime, most of which is spent with friends. Thus in its very conception, the school day is set up as an emotional tug of war between class work and friends" (p202)

School organisation should try to minimise this feature of the school day which it appears scrambles the students' attention. As we noted in the previous chapter, Secondary Education: The Future is not specific about organisation, stating more generally; "The organisation and curriculum of the school must be flexible enough to cater for the needs, abilities and interests of all students" (3.7) and later "Methods of organisation that enable students to work with a small number of teachers help create good personal relationships" (4.1.4) One practical example of how this works being the Biddick school referred to above. If the above study together with the findings ofSizer, Goodlad, Powell and the H.M.I. are valid, organisation of schools should provide sustained adult - adolescence contact rather than the debilitating staccato kind which mitigates against motivation and learning. As the Chicago Study puts it, "Efficient preparation for adulthood might require long periods of stable, patient attention focussed on structured topics (P.217)

The matter of school organisation also subsumes the question of how young people should be grouped for such periods of focused attention. As we saw in Chapter 2 there is some pressure for separate schools for various groups of young people. If comprehensive schools are maintained the pressure is for separate strands or tracks within the schools. It is worth noting at this point that there is broad agreement in the literature already referred to in favour of mixed ability groupings. The view is stated conservatively by Munn and Scott (1977) who argue that streaming should not be allowed for the first two years of secondary schooling. TEND (1978) maintains that schools should no longer be streamed according to varying abilities and this is the view of the reports written in the 1980's. Goodlad is the strongest advocate for mixed ability grouping. Tracking to him is a folly the continuation of which, "tempts me to urge its mandatory abolition so that ill-informed people will be forced to refrain from its use ... students should be assigned to classes randomly in a way that assures heterogeneity. Only in this way can we have some assurance that grouping practices alone will not lead to different subject matter, different expectations, and different teacher treatment of students." (Goodlad, 1983, p297). Hargreaves (1984) adds the view that mixed ability grouping and teaching are an important social benefit. The report continues to express the view that the committee were not persuaded that 'able' pupils suffer. Sizer concurs with this opinion. Secondary Education: The Future avoids this issue altogether.

The Chicago Study, while not involving itself in the debate on how young people should be grouped, continues by examining how schools might ensure that adolescent's attention is engaged with the challenges of adulthood. Given that adolescence is "a mine field of things that go wrong" (P.237) and in today's world they face demands placed on them by a multitude of choices exploding out of the expanding cultural and technological requirements for adulthood together with the threat of contracting opportunities, adults in schools have an increased responsibility to convert these challenges into constructive purposes. Csikszentmihalyi and Larson argue that,

"Through clarifying goals, through balancing challenges and skills, through meaningful feedback, students find enjoyment in doing something directly related to their development. This modest finding has tremendous implications, because it proves that school need not be dull and alienating" (P.258)

Schools, the authors maintain, should concentrate on how to make learning enjoyable by increasing adolescent active involvement (whether mental, physical or both). They discuss "enjoyment" at length and show that tough concentrated effort is rewarding for young people. For this to work they point out that schools need to "present students with opportunities they can cope with, and increase these challenges as the individual skills of the learner develop" (P.259). This is reminiscent of Scott's contention that teachers should know more about how children learn and is developed by the authors of Secondary Education: The Future when they contend:

"The courses studied by students should match and extend their abilities and interests" 4.2

"approaches should be adopted that are appropriate to the stage of development of the students and that provide them with achievable goals ... Essential skills and content should be prescribed in ways that enable students to master them (4.2.1)...

"Unless activities are designed to motivate, stimulate and challenge students it is unlikely that much learning will occur (4.2.2)

Certainly the aim appears to be to allow all young people in Tasmanian schools to shape meaningful and responsible lives for themselves. The adults in schools have a responsibility to enable young people to create meaning in their lives. This task is made more difficult by the degree of pessimism young people are said to have about their future (ref Curriculum Workshop readings A). The most recent study reported in May of this year states that "eighty per cent of children surveyed in Sydney fear there will be a nuclear holocaust before they become adults" (The Mercury 14.5.87)

Csikszentmihalyi and Larson maintain that enjoyment and hence engagement with learning "tends to occur whenever a person feels that his or her capacity to act matches the opportunities for action in a given situation (P.264) To give young people the knowledge and competencies to face what many interpret as a grim future Secondary Education: The Future supports the Chicago Study when it maintains;

"A supportive learning environment is one where students are encouraged to build on their achievements. Students are then more likely to develop the confidence they require to persevere and to contribute effectively in a competitive world" (4.1.3)

Csikszentmihalyi and Larson ask the question "What can an adult do for an adolescent?" and provide an answer which picks up themes already discussed in this chapter and to be taken up again in Chapter 7.

"Perhaps the best thing we can offer is examples - examples of how to choose among goals, how to persevere, how to have patience, how to recognize the challenges of life and enjoy meeting them. We can help adolescence by letting them share our own hard-won habits of skill and discipline. We can help by letting them see what achieving control over experience can bring serenity and enjoyment in its wake". (P.284)

Disruptive behaviour

It follows then that if the social environment is supportive of learning and worked at continually as Secondary Education: The Future recommends; if students are given the opportunity to contribute to decisions and are consulted on courses of study; if courses studied match and extend the abilities and interests and in Csikszentmihalyi and Larson's terms learning is enjoyable and attention is applied to learning then the signs of alienation, passivity and apathy should be minimal. Nevertheless some students will be disruptive in schools. Recommendations for

dealing with serious disruptive behaviour generally begin by addressing the matters mentioned above. Hence Secondary Education: The Future when discussing students whose attitudes and behaviour cause problems comment:

"The behaviour of apathetic students can be improved through the kinds of consultation, counselling and course provision referred to earlier in this statement" (4.4.2).

The Hargreaves Committee again comment at length: "some pupils would in spite of these measures, continue to be disaffected by their experience of school, to be disruptive and to underachieve." (1984, p89) They continue to argue as have others (see Education Department, 1986C; Glasser, William, 1969; Murphy, Lorraine, August, 1986 and 1986) that schools must change the way they perceive these pupils. There is a real problem with the ease with which dismissive labels are used:

"At present in this country we tend to treat the pupils who do not fit into the secondary school as problems: they are pupils who are labelled as 'difficult', as 'deviants' or as 'misfits'. There is, it is said, nothing wrong with the school but there is something wrong with the pupils who reject the school. Quite rightly, we try all we can to help such pupils to adjust to school like the majority of their peers but, when our attempts to integrate them fail, we tend to respond in one of two ways. The first response is often to be positive by suspending the disruptive pupil ... The second response is to reject them. The misfits are best catered for if they are placed outside the normal school, in a special class or a special unit, where people with the appropriate expertise, skill or interest can cope with these pupils, leaving ordinary teachers or ordinary pupils free to get on with the normal business of schooling." (Hargreaves, 1984 3.16.2 P.89)

The problem is real and pressing for schools and teachers as Principals' comments for their 1986 conference indicated. However

as Hargreaves and local expert Murphy point out the response of punishment and rejection tend to make the pupils worse, not better. Hargreaves recommends the involvement with parents where this is possible and the authors of Secondary Education: The Future maintain that "Teachers and parents can support each other in managing difficult situations, and students are likely to be more responsible and co-operative in their behaviour" (4.4.3) But if this fails the Hargreaves committee believe that "...it seems more realistic and more productive to accept that the school has in some sense failed them rather than insisting that it is they who have failed us" (1984, p89) and hence seek some positive alternatives. Following such thinking Secondary Education: The Future maintains that, "The best results will be obtained if a problem-solving rather than a punitive stance is taken" (4.4.4) Significantly in a couple of places in this section on disruptive behaviour the authors of Secondary Education: The Future explicitly recommend the involvement of students in the decision making process with regard to rules. Hence they claim:

"Disruptive behaviour - whether it is minor in nature or more serious - can be prevented or improved by the application of a discipline and incentive policy developed co-operatively by teachers, parents and students" (4.4.2) and "Teachers, parents and students are more likely to understand and be committed to school rules that are fair and consistent and that they have helped to shape" (4.4.3)

The January version is a vast improvement on the original discussion paper which fell into the trap of labelling apathetic and disruptive students rather than using terms to describe behaviour. The tone of the first document was far more punitive:

"In the case of disruptive students, the whole school community should be fully aware of the expectations of the school with regard to acceptable behaviour. There is a need for the school and the Education Department to have a range of sanctions that can be applied to those who have difficulty in keeping to the rules." (5.5.1)

There was no mention of counselling strategies, no suggestion that this was part of a wider problem of engaging young people with learning as we have discussed above. The change is commendable.

Assessment

To increase motivation and foster achievement, to involve students in their own learning and to increase the levels of participation in decision making are all aims supported by the educators referred to above. However the "central problem" for maintaining these aims and translating them into practice as Martin Bloomer observed in his chapter "Adolescence and schooling: A Co-existence of Antagonism?" is assessment (1979, p80). There is considerable international accord and concern in the educational reports referred to above on the matter of assessment. Scott (1977) reminded us that we should distinguish between assessment purposes:

- a) as part of the normal teaching program, and
- b) devised for some external purpose. (P.119)

The whole of schooling, the report continued, should NOT become one of sifting and sorting simply because a classification is required by some outside agencies at the end of compulsory schooling. The same point is made by Munn and followed up in more detail in the Dunning Report (1977) Assessment for All which stressed that assessment should be geared to the educational objectives institutionalised in the curriculum, instead of the curriculum's being controlled by the national assessment system. Educators increasingly are challenging the role of examinations and the relationship of formal examinations and certification in the whole learning process. (For instance Rowntree 1977; Burgess and Adams 1980; Black and Broadfoot 1982; Hargreaves 1982 and 1984; Shipman 1983 and Blackburn 1985). In the process definitions of assessment have moved from a summative focus to a formative. For instance Rowntree in Assessing Students: How Shall We Know Them? writes;

"...assessment in education can be thought of as occurring whenever one person, in some kind of interaction, direct or indirect, with another, is conscious of obtaining and interpreting information about the knowledge and understanding, or abilities and attitudes of that other person. To some extent or other it is an attempt to know that person. In this light assessment can be seen as human encounter." (1977, p4)

Furthermore educators are recognising that the system of norm referenced assessment so common in schools is "one of the main factors in causing demotivation, underachievement and rejection of school" (European Community's Action Programme Transition of Young People from Education to Adult Life (1984 P.29) That is, a system of assessment which systematically rejects and fails a significant proportion of young people, will not positively aid them in the critical phase of life when they are piecing together their identities. While only a minority reject school a larger group might be insidiously influenced to reject learning which in a time of rapid change will be a major disadvantage to themselves and society at large.

Secondary Education: The Future makes this point clearly.

"The main purpose of Assessment is to help students to learn." 4.5

It is very easy for students to become discouraged by assessment procedures, particularly those methods that place undue emphasis on comparing one student with another. Where this occurs many students experience failure for much of their time at school. Assessment must not discourage students. If it does, students will turn away from learning, and ultimately the community as well as the students will suffer" 4.5.1

Once the kinds of skills and competencies which young people need in their future lives takes precedence over the concerns with

covering the syllabus new demands are placed on assessment. The H.M.I. elaborate this point succinctly:

"Where a curriculum aims mainly to teach information, assessment by some traditional form of written examination might be considered appropriate, but for a curriculum which intends to teach skills, attitudes, concepts and knowledge this will be insufficient. Assessment is part of the curriculum and consequently assessment procedures and examinations, whether internal or external should arise from the curriculum and not determine it ... Methods of assessment will need to be directly connected to ways of teaching and in turn to what is taught" (HMI 1983, P.38)

This last point stressing methodology is particularly important and will be dealt with in more detail in the following chapter.

Assessment as part of the curriculum in terms of Secondary Education: The Future means evolving courses which give clearly articulated purposes in terms of the development of competencies and characteristics which in turn allow for the application of knowledge and hence criteria for assessment.

So the document states:

"All courses must contain clear statements of purpose and the criteria for assessment" 3.6

It is precisely because so much turns on clarity of purpose in terms of the competencies young people should be developing that concern was expressed in the last chapter about the abstract way they are described in the document.

In its comments on students and assessment Secondary Education: The Future makes quite clear that students are to be involved in the process. Point 3.6.2 states "Each student's achievements should be assessed by teachers and by the students themselves ..." and again; in point 4.5.3

"One of the most powerful aids to learning is assessment that is undertaken systematically by the students themselves. Self assessment is a skill that should be taught and used to complement the assessments made by teachers".

These points explicitly support the theme acknowledging the child-adult who must be given increased responsibility for and involvement in their learning. Other writers on assessment support student involvement as a vital part of the process: (Burgess and Adams 1980 and 1985; Black and Broadfoot 1982; European Community, 1983; Johnston, 1983; Hargreaves, 1984). They maintain involvement is critical because of the increased motivation which results. This then is a key strategy to engage young people's attention with learning which Csikszentmihalyi and Larson's study indicated was so important for the adolescent's development and which has been found already to be effective:

"Where a systematic approach to [self assessment] has been introduced, improvements have been noticed in the relationship between tutor and student and in the self-confidence of the individual student - confidence growing from the ability to discuss one's progress, weaknesses, strengths and expectations." (European Community Action Programme, Transition of Young People from Education to Adult and Working Life, Working Document, New Developments in Assessment: Profiling, 1983 P.30)

Records of Achievement

As the title of the above quote suggests self assessment which develops self confidence and motivates young people to learn is vitally connected to a further strategy. That is the use of student profiles to record and report on achievement. Once again there is much evidence in the literature already cited to support profiles or records of achievement for they have been in use in various parts of Britain since 1970. It has been found that use of profiles, "offers the greatest potential for change in that it

commits the education system as a whole to an assessment strategy in which pupils are equal partners". (Broadfoot, 1986a, p313).

Secondary Education: The Future makes this commitment:

"Students should prepare records of their achievements to help them enter adult life." 4.6

These records, as stressed in the literature, (European Community 1983; Burgess and Adams 1980 and 1986; Nuttall 1986, Broadfoot 1986; Black and Broadfoot 1982; Munby 1986; Forster and Munby 1986; Dockerell and Broadfoot 1977) are to be a joint enterprise of teachers and students and are to reinforce teaching and learning. In fact as the guiding principle enunciates clearly, the primary responsibility is with students. Such a record should allow for the documentation of personal attributes or characteristics and will allow for an exhibition of attainments which in Gardner's terms may be in intelligences not conventionally part of a school's assessment and reporting system.

The use of profiles or records of achievement, if the collective wisdom on them is correct, is the most significant strategy for ensuring a better education for adolescents. They are pivotal in increasing motivation, involvement, active learning and aiding in the vital sense of identity which was earlier claimed to be a crucial aspect of the adolescent years. Furthermore profiles or records of achievement provide a way of integrating the pastoral and curriculum systems in schools. This happens when profiles rightly applied facilitate:

- " . greater communication and negotiation between teachers and students and between student and other students;
- . greater student involvement and active participation in the learning process;
- . a re-inforcement of achievements and positive objectives in students, rather than a feeling of failure and worthlessness;

- . a greater emphasis in schools and colleges on the individual student who "becomes invisible";
- . greater student self awareness and more emphasis on the personal and social development of students; and
- . pressure on schools and colleges to re-examine their curriculum and their teaching strategies so that students have opportunity to demonstrate and develop for example, problem solving skills, initiative, group work skills and enterprise. Profiles should therefore encourage the introduction and development of a 'pastoral curriculum' and a movement towards 'active' learning." (Munby 1986)

Which brings us back to where this chapter began. The final edition of Secondary Education: The Future (May 1987) makes a most interesting addition to the Discussion Paper and the January edition.

"Students achievements should be celebrated regularly" 4.7. This statement acknowledges the 'multiple intelligence' in which young people may excel and schools are exhorted to recognise and affirm them because "Regular recognition of achievement strengthens the feelings of satisfaction and success that are essential for the development of self-confidence and motivation" (4.7.2) Motivation is Hargreave's fourth aspect of achievement, "the most important of all" (Hargreaves, 1984, p2)

CHAPTER 6

TEACHERS AS LEARNERS

If recent reports, including Secondary Education: The Future, are maintaining that young people should be more actively involved in the learning process then the consequence clearly is that teachers will need to be more actively involved in making pedagogical decisions. The HMI compress these ideas together in what they suggest is the critical question teachers should ask themselves, "How do children learn and how can I as a teacher help them?" (1983, p35). But this appears to be a difficult question to ask as well as to answer. For a variety of reasons it seems that teachers feel more secure demonstrating, telling and instructing for intentions can be clear and roles secure. The Scott Committee understood that the matter was not a simplistic choice between passive students or active student pupil centred work. They commented:

"The Committee regards the indicative and student centred approaches to teaching as poles of a continuum of teaching techniques available to a school. All points on the continuum of teaching techniques are legitimate, and any technique is likely to be disabling if used exclusively". (1977, p79 their emphasis).

Teaching styles

For the Scott Committee it is a matter of finding appropriate balance in a continuum. As we have noted earlier, particularly with reference to Adler's Paideia Proposal, once the focus is placed on developing a range of competencies together with knowledge and understanding then a range of suitable methodologies must be considered. Adler did not talk about a continuum but of three teaching styles to achieve three educational goals. These styles are described as interconnected rather than discrete and this way of viewing pedagogy is supported bySizer and Boyer in

their subsequent books on secondary education. The three teaching styles to achieve three educational goals are: lecturing, to transmit information; coaching, to teach a skill; and socratic questioning, to enlarge understanding. Adler's conclusion is that,

"All genuine learning is active not passive. It involves the use of the mind, not just the memory. It is a process of discovery in which the student is the main agent, not the teacher." (1982, p50)

Yet the teacher has a critical role in providing the facilitating context. As Husen maintains in The School in Question (1979) the role of the teacher is as the organiser of learning opportunities for the individual student. This task Husen argues should be continuous and systematic, requiring that the teacher guide the learning process itself and check the outcomes.

Thus the reports are arguing that methodology is critical. The teacher, as well as the student, must be more active and become a wise selector of appropriate pedagogy from a wide variety of styles. Margaret Marshall in the Council of Europe's report The Compulsory Secondary School - Adolescence in the Curriculum (1983) commented, "many teachers need to adopt a great variety of teaching styles and to seek ways of giving more responsibility to individuals and groups (1983, p42). According to the HMI, teachers should "adopt various teaching styles; they are at times listeners; at times partners; at times assessors; they need to question, cajole, encourage and guide and to know when, how, and when not to intervene" (1983, p35). Hence, Secondary Education: The Future is in general agreement with other recent reports when it states:

"For the principles in this statement to be implemented teachers must have the requisite knowledge, and an extensive repertoire of teaching competencies and characteristics." (5.1)

The use of the word "repertoire" suggests a notion of the teacher as actor; however as previous arguments suggest an actor who must be able to play both starring and supportive roles. Even when "starring" the central issue is not one's own performance per se but as with good actors a concern to engage the imagination and thinking of the "audience". Sizer made the point this way:

"The key worker in a school is the student. The only important product is his or her learning. All else is a matter of means. The only function of the teacher is to assist the student to learn. Any other kind of teacher performance is irrelevant." (Sizer, 1984, p151)

Teaching as an art

This use of language places the emphasis on learning as a humane process. The subsequent definition in Secondary Education: The Future describes teaching as a "systematic and pragmatic art" and follows thinkers such as Sizer and Elliot Eisner who argue that we should move away from mechanistic metaphors such as "delivering a service" and "instructional strategies" which arise from the "mill applied to learning" syndrome (Bloomer 1979) and military manuals. The mystery, challenge and complexity of learning must not be underrated, Sizer argues. Elliot Eisner also believes that teaching is an art in at least four senses.

"It is an art in the sense that teaching can be performed with such skill and grace that, for the student as well as for the teacher, the experience can be justifiably characterised as aesthetic ... what occurs is a performance that provides intrinsic forms of satisfaction, so much so that we use the adjectives and accolades usually applied to the formal arts to describe what the teacher does while teaching.

Teaching is an art in the sense that teachers, like painters, composers, actresses, and dancers, make judgements based largely on qualities that unfold during

the course of action. Qualitative forms of intelligence are used to select, control, and organise classroom qualities, such as tempo, tone, climate, pace of discussion, and forward movement. The teacher must 'read' the emerging qualities and respond with qualities appropriate to the ends sought or the direction he wishes the students to take. In this process, qualitative judgement is exercised in the interests of achieving a qualitative end.

Teaching is an art in the sense that the teacher's activity is not dominated by prescriptions or routines but is influenced by qualities and contingencies that are unpredicted. The teacher must function in an innovative way in order to cope with these contingencies. To say that prescription and routine do not dominate the teacher's activity is not to say that they are not present or play no part in teaching. Teaching requires for its artistic expression routines with which to work; the teacher must have available repertoires to draw on It is precisely the tension between automaticity and inventiveness that makes teaching, like any other art, so complex an undertaking...

Teaching is an art in the sense that the ends it achieves are often created in process. Craft has been defined as the process through which skills are employed to arrive at preconceived ends. Art has been defined as the process in which skills are employed to discover ends through action ... In a similar sense, teaching is a form of human action in which many of the ends achieved are emergent - that is to say, found in the course of interaction with students rather than preconceived and efficiently attained. This is not to say that there are no situations in which preconceived ends are formulated; ... It is to say that to emphasise the exclusive use of such a model of teaching reduces it to a set of algorithmic functions...

It is in these four senses - teaching as a source of aesthetic experience, as dependent on the perception and control of qualities, as a heuristic or adventitious activity, and as seeking emergent ends - that teaching can be regarded as an art." (Eisner, 1979, p153-155)

This greatly expands the notion of teaching as an art and indicates the complex human processes which are involved. Sizer and Powell's books contain portraits of teachers who display these four senses in action. After describing the teaching of Sr. Michael, Charles Green and Fred Curtis, Sizer comments:

"Adaptibility is at the core of their judgement. Their work suggests no Pill for Good Pedagogical Judgement that can be packaged and distributed by school authorities.... They exemplify the subtlety and complexity of getting things right so that students can learn, and the importance of adult judgement and style throughout." (Sizer, 1984, p150)

Teaching well is a complex, subtle, humane process.

Rather than specify a range of teaching styles as such, Secondary Education: The Future has chosen to list the repertoire of competencies and characteristics which are basic to the art of teaching. The competencies are divided into two groups - those basic to the art of teaching and those associated with management issues. In the Discussion Paper the list owed much to the thinking of Adler and Sizer:

- " . engaging the learner's imagination;
- . teaching through explaining;
- . questioning to elucidate and to increase appreciation and understanding;

- . coaching and tutoring to help the individual learner to refine his or her work and do things better; and
- . telling stories." (6.1.4)

The additions to the Americans' list are competence in engaging the learner's imagination which was left implicit in Adler andSizer's discussion of teaching styles (telling, coaching, questioning) and "telling stories" which might well be part of the "telling" or didactic style. Both deserve to be made explicit.

Engaging the imagination is vital for learning. Albert Einstein has been quoted as saying:

"I believe in intuition and inspiration. At times I feel certain I am right while not knowing the reason why. Imagination is more important than knowledge, for knowledge is limited whereas imagination embraces the entire world, stimulating progress and giving birth to evaluation." (Found in a Women's Weekly many years ago.)

Imagination suggests a mind open to possibilities and receptive to learning. David Holbrook wrote recently that we need to educate for self-realisation, imagination and spirit. His argument is concerned about the priority being given technology and science in the name of 'economic needs'. In countering the instrumental and mechanistic emphasis which was discussed in chapter 2 Holbrook writes:

"But when it comes to learning and research, indeed where all thought is concerned, the imagination must come first ... If there is to be a more dynamic future for our country, it is imagination and a sense of human potentialities which we need, to further the capacity for self realisation."
(Holbrook, 1987, p99, his emphasis).

The thinking here links with Schumacher's quoted in chapter 2; that is we need scientists who are imaginative people who have been given a humane education as well as a technical one. Telling stories is one way of engaging the imagination. One respondent to the discussion paper expressed concern that this competence NOT include telling lies. This raises the dilemma of the connotations given to "story", "fiction" and "myths" which carry the possibility of expressing human truth together with the connotation of "falsehood". The benefits of the story form for communication is becoming increasingly understood. This year the Education Department released a booklet, Everything's a Story which elaborates the place of story in the school program. The authors write:

"Human awareness is largely informed and expressed by story and storying.

- . Story permits people to talk in ways that allow them to make connections which transform events into episodes and episodes into more complete narratives.
- . Story allows us to reflect on the past and prepare for the future.,
- . Story allows us to entertain and instruct simultaneously.
- . Story includes the craft-life skills of telling, or composing, jokes, riddles, folk tales, anecdotes, fables and parables, as well as a variety of journalistic reports on current events.
- . Story occurs in every area of the curriculum."

(Klaosen et al 1986, p7)

They note that 'storying' is a significant and useful term which refers to the "capacity of human beings to weave events together coherently, into memorable sequences which involve both intellect

and emotion." (op cit). Storying is a way of developing the "what if?" the imaginative, intuitive leap of science in which Einstein believed. It is interesting to observe the extent to which informational books for children, of recent years, have absorbed this understanding that the story form is a way of engaging the imagination and communicating knowledge and understandings in a way that is relatively painless. Furthermore faith in storying is clearly evident in many of the educational texts referred to in this chapter, namely those bySizer, Goodlad, Powell, Hampel and Lightfoot. As I commented in an earlier paper:

"The acknowledgement that truths are to be found in story, in detailed narratives which provide vivid descriptions and subtle nuances is a fascinating and significant development because as a style of telling it marries, as in the best novels, form and meaning. Hence we are not just told that learning is a complex human activity we are helped to grasp the point imaginatively." (Radford, October 1985, p18).

For teachers too storying is potentially a rich resource.

In re-writing this part of the document it seems to me some of the initial conceptual clarity has been lost. The authors wished to add to this list of competencies "listening" and "encouragement" and subsequently re-wrote the list as follows:

- " . engaging the learner's imagination and curiosity;
- . questioning and instructing;
- . listening sympathetically;
- . encouraging and praising;
- . telling stories, anecdotes and histories;
- . helping students to do things better; and

. using a variety of teaching styles and methods."

(5.1.2)

The linking of curiosity with imagination is a reasonable elaboration. However, to change 'explaining' to 'instructing' and to put it together with 'questioning' rather than listing them separately is to blur the concepts. The idea elaborated by Adler and espoused bySizer and Boyer keep the didactic mode (telling and explaining) separate from Questioning because in Adler's argument they fulfill different purposes (and may involve different class organisation and use of materials as well). While Adler acknowledges, and in fact encourages, the use of questioning to enliven the didactic mode the mode he defines as Questioning is a separate matter and is more fully explained thus: The purpose is the enlargement of understanding and the mode of teaching,

"...must be the Socratic mode of teaching, a mode of teaching called "maieutic" because it helps the student bring ideas to birth. It is teaching by asking questions, by leading discussions, by helping students to raise their minds up from a state of understanding or appreciating less to a state of understanding or appreciating more." (Adler, 1982, p29)

Powell and Sizer's books have vivid portraits of teachers in action using this mode in stimulating classrooms. Secondary Education: The Future's compression of these ideas has debased what I take to be the clarity of intention which was present in the discussion paper. It means too that the potential for future attention to teaching styles may be weakened by the muddying of the concepts. Furthermore the word "instructing" has connotations which are quite different from either "telling" or "explaining" and in fact sets up echoes which are antithetical with the whole notion of teaching as an art. This suggests an internal inconsistency at the conceptual level. To 'explain' is softer than to "instruct". The term "instruction" is "more likely to be used by those whose orientation to curriculum is technological and who

want to maximise effective control over the content and form of what children learn in school" (Eisner, 1979, p159). To argue that they are equivalent is to ignore the conceptual baggage that each term carries with it - each implying a rather different notion of teaching.

"Listening sympathetically" and "encouraging and praising" appear to be reasonable additions to the competencies that are "basic to the art of teaching" although the latter overlaps with the list of characteristics. To add "anecdotes and histories" to "telling stories" is a sensible elaboration and will help explain what is meant by this point. However, the next change is most unfortunate. The term "coaching" is dropped so that what is left is "helping students to do things better". The metaphor of coaching, as explored by Adler andSizer is a useful frame in which to think how skills need to be developed through experience. That is, the metaphor to describe a teaching mode is again closely tied to a specific purpose. Sizer explains,

"In sum, these skills - reading, writing, speaking, listening, measuring, estimating, claculating, seeing and the basic modes of imagining and reasoning should be at the core of high school work. They should pervade all subjects offered and be visibly and reviewably part of the school program.

How are skills learned? By experience. How then are they best taught? By COACHING?" (Sizer, 198 , p106).

The term when used by Sizer and Adler was not idle rhetoric but a meaningful analogy used by educators who like the authors of Secondary Education: The Future, are arguing forcefully for the central place of skills in the curriculum. Adler elaborates the metaphor,

"Since what is learned here is skill in performance, not knowledge of facts and formulas, the mode of teaching cannot be didactic. It cannot consist in the teacher

telling, demonstrating, or lecturing. Instead, it must be akin to the coaching that is done to impart athletic skills. A coach does not teach simply by telling or giving the learner a rule book to follow. A coach trains by helping the learner to do, to go through the right motions, and to organise a sequence of acts in a correct fashion. He corrects faulty performance again and again and insists on repetition of the performance until it achieves a measure of perfection." (Adler, 1982, p27)

Like most analogies there may be aspects of the comparison with which we are uncomfortable. Nevertheless the metaphor provides a potentially fruitful way to consider the sort of teaching which places competencies at the core of school work. To drop the term "coaching" suggests that the authors of the January edition were unaware of the way the analogy is used by Adler andSizer. To have kept it would have allowed for the exploration of an idea which may well have conceptually aided practice.

The January edition of Secondary Education: The Future includes as a final competency basic to the art of teaching "using a variety of teaching styles and methods" which appears somewhat circuitous - for what are "questioning", "instructing", "telling stories" but methods. Presumably what is intended here is the notion of group work, whole class work, debate, individualised programs, role play, simulation and the like. The reference here is perhaps close to the Scott Committee's view of a continuum of teaching techniques referred to at the beginning of this chapter. Implementing Ministerial Paper No. 6's booklet on teaching strategies also takes the view that different teaching/learning styles represent different places on a continuum in terms of the respective roles of teacher and student in the learning process. They organise the styles thus:

- . Teacher-centred
- . Teacher and task-centred
- . Task and student-centred
- . Student and task-centred

- . Group task
- . Individual task (p10)

and continue by discussing objectives and the need to make decisions about teaching strategies to suit pedagogical purposes. The use of a variety of methods selected presumably for the sake of variety and without a clear idea of purpose is not a responsible suggestion by the authors of Secondary Education: The Future. Any discussion of choice from a rich repertoire must have a clear notion of purpose if worthwhile pedagogical aims are to be realised. One implication for implementation is that further practical ideas such as those in the Victorian booklet Teaching Strategies need to be prepared together with staff development activities which focus on teaching and learning.

Classroom Management

The competencies associated with management show some overlap with what Boyer saw as a matter of commonsense:

"..careful planning for each lesson, educational goals for each day's work, pacing and timing, love of the subject matter, and respect for the students, clarity in procedures, discipline in carrying through, and the careful measurement of accomplishments are essential elements in the formula for success." (Boyer, 1983, p149)

The list of competencies also makes explicit an attitude to adolescence which we explored in the last chapter, hence:

- " . involving students in the planning and selecting of activities;
- . ensuring that all students can participate successfully in the learning activities;

- . providing activities that extend and challenge all students;
- . organising time for students to complete their learning."

(5.1.3)

The raison d'être for management issues in the classroom is clearly to facilitate the student as learner and the teacher as teacher. Furthermore this list carries an implicit intention that teachers make their intentions explicit - that the 'how' and the 'why' as well as the 'what' be a matter for discussion.

The last point in this list of competencies associated with management varies significantly from that in the discussion paper. There it read,

"..communicating and working productively with other staff, parents and members of the wider community."

(6.1.5)

In the January edition the word "communicating" is dropped. The word "communicating" is relevant because it assumes a competence associated with management which is not now listed and that is the "careful measurement of accomplishments" to use Boyer's terms or the recording of a range of assessments as a base for future learning and reporting. Presumably to "communicate productively" a teacher would need to observe and record carefully and thoroughly for each individual child. Given the principles espoused on assessment it is an intriguing omission in the lists of competencies for teachers. Even the word "communicating" is not adequate but it did carry with it the baggage of intentions in this area.

The January edition also excludes a competence deemed relevant in the discussion paper. That is,

"..ensuring that the climate of the classroom is productive and that all students are engaged with learning." (6.1.5)

Presumably it was felt that this point could be considered redundant together with the others which if successfully accomplished would ensure a productive climate. Furthermore the issue of climate is addressed, as we have seen in "The Student" section in terms of establishing a social environment (4.1, 4.1.2 and 4.1.4). Nevertheless the dropping of the term climate and consequently the notion of a classroom and school climate and its importance for learning is curious in the light of recent local research and the use many schools have made of climate scales (Docker, J. G. and Fisher, D. L. 1985). The matter of climate or ambience is addressed in the literature referred to above. Scott (1979) discusses the necessity for the staff and school organisations to express a general caring attitude towards students. Sizer, who appears to be particularly sensitive to the complexity of schooling, states, "Human factors rather than physical ones most shape the climate of a school". (1984, p76). Perhaps the term 'climate' is not used in the policy document because it was considered a limited metaphor (despite its current usage). The word can communicate a sense of human helplessness although most of the literature discusses climate in the sense in which it was used in the Discussion Paper - that is susceptible to systematic and deliberate human intervention. My own preference is for the more human term 'ambience' because the metaphor 'climate', "actively serves to deny that power and the importance of collective conversations and actions amongst pupils, parents, teachers, administrators and policy-makers for the articulation and handling of conflicts of value". (Findlayson, D.S. 1987, p172)

Personal qualities

Teachers are also to exhibit, in fact must (the word is used sparingly and has been in and out of the draft documents in all sorts of places - here significantly, it has been retained)

exhibit personal characteristics. In Boyer's terms these are "enduring qualities", he writes:

"We are almost embarrassed that so much about good pedagogy is so familiar, but, at the same time, we are encouraged by this realisation. There remain some old-fashioned yet enduring qualities in human relationships, that still work - command of the material to be taught, contagious enthusiasm for the work to be done, optimism about the potential of the students (teachers are quite properly eternal optimists), and human sensitivity, that is, integrity and warmth as a human being. When we think of a great teacher, most often we remember a person whose technical skills were matched by the qualities we associate with a good and trusted friend." (Boyer, 1983, p149)

For the authors of Secondary Education: The Future the list is:

- " . showing care and concern for all students;
- . being fair and just in all dealings with students;
- . displaying enthusiasm for what is being taught;
- . insisting that the work done by students should always be their best; and
- . being willing and able to change and to cope with changing circumstances."

(5.1.5)

To what extent can this richness of competencies and characteristics be observed in our schools? To what extent are local teachers able to call upon a wide range of teaching styles to meet differing purposes? Eisner reminds us that,

"Because teaching can be engaged in as an art is not to suggest that all teaching can be characterised as such. Teaching can be done as badly as anything else. It can be wooden, mechanical, mindless, and wholly unimaginative." (Eisner, 1979, p155)

Between this and the principles enunciated in Secondary Education: The Future is a long continuum of possibilities. I commented when discussing the competencies and characteristics to be developed in young people that they ought to be considered as context bound. So too with the lists discussed above. For each teacher their particular context will determine the extent to which they can make their teaching an art in Eisner's terms.

'Thick descriptions'

We have, as yet, no local systematic description of teachers, classrooms or schools which allow us to see how far our teachers reach the ideals espoused in Secondary Education: The Future, and the other secondary reports referred to above. The most detailed studies of this kind are from America. Goodlad,Sizer, Powell et al and Lightfoot have written what they have called "thick descriptions" (from sociologist Clifford Geertz) of high schools and generally come out with a rather depressing picture of the quality of teaching.

John Goodlad's A Study of Schooling indicates that the range of pedagogical procedures employed, particularly in the academic subjects, is very narrow.

"...the bulk of teacher talk was instructing in the sense of telling. Barely 5% of this instructional time was designed to create students' anticipation of needing to respond. Not even 1% required some kind of open response involving reasoning or perhaps an opinion from students. Usually, when a student was called on to respond, it was to give an informational answer to the teacher's question...

In effect then, the model classroom configurations which we observed looked like this: the teacher explaining or lecturing to the total class or a single student, occasionally asking questions requiring factual answers; the teacher, when not lecturing, observing or monitoring students working individually at their desks, students listening or appearing to listen to the teacher and occasionally responding to the teacher's questions; students working individually at their desks on reading or writing assignments, and all with little emotion, from interpersonal warmth to expressions of hostility." (Goodlad, 1984, pp229-230)

This depressing summary of limited repertoires is supported by Arthur Powell et al in The Shopping Mall High School. In the chapter "Treaties" Powell describes in vivid "thick description" the peace keeping accommodations or treaties which reduce the majority of classes to neutral environments. Human beings who must live and work together prefer to do so amicably rather than with antagonism. Therefore both teachers and students have "subtle ways of accommodating either differences or similarities: they arrange deals or treaties that promote mutual goals and that keep the peace ... most treaties are tacit arrangements." (Powell, 1985, p68). Furthermore Powell reveals that most treaties work for the avoidance of learning. Teachers and students both bargain for less taxing obligations in the classroom.

Sizer describes classrooms as predominantly drab neutral places leading to boredom "a disease of epidemic proportions" (Sizer, 1984, p242). He feels that much teaching in high schools is abysmal. Sizer acknowledges that while some of this is "due to teachers' incompetence, insensitivity, and carelessness, some also flows from the conditions of work" (Sizer, 1984, p94). Sizer portrays graphically through his fictional composite character Horace how good intentions can be compromised by the complexity of factors which demean the profession in the public's eye and make the day to day business of teaching so demanding. Together these

factors lead to Horace's Compromise, which gives the title to Sizer's work.

Seymour Sarason (1971) was the first to illuminate how the compromises which teachers like Horace are forced to make come about because of the "culture of the school". The particular structures, behaviours, meanings and belief systems that have evolved in each school are local manifestations of the general schooling culture. Sarason calls these structures etc. regularities and argues that they constitute both what must be understood if change is to be achieved and what must be altered if change is to be anything but trivial. It is the fact that these regularities are overlooked which explains why, despite decades of attempts to change schools, Goodlad, Powell and Sizer's extensive studies still found passive learners in neutral environments. Teachers in these studies are not using the extensive repertoire of competencies and characteristics argued for by Secondary Education; The Future.

The regularities which obstruct change

What are some of the regularities which will effect the extent to which a repertoire can be developed? The basic organising structures are most important: students are grouped by ages; 'the clock is king' (Sizer, 1984, p79) and the day is divided into units of time which leads to the frenetic quality of the school day - "a sense of sustained restlessness" (Sizer, 1984, p79). The frequent room changes provide tempting opportunities for distraction which were referred to in the previous chapter. Goodlad remarks on how the constant movement effects the development of relationships.

"The never-ending movement of students and teachers from class to class appears not conducive to teachers and students getting to know one another, let alone to their establishing a stable, mutually supporting relationship. Indeed it would appear to foster the casualness and neutrality in human relations we observed to

characterise so many of the classrooms in our sample."
(Goodlad, 1984, p112-113).

The subject divisions of the timetable highlight the priority given to content and carry the implication that coverage within subjects is the key priority - "the swamp of coverage" to use Sizer's words. (Sizer, 1984, p131). The breakdown of subjects into regular time slots or periods supports the belief that factual knowledge is most important and is most easily evaluated. Less significant perhaps are the regularity of PA announcements which intrude into priorities set by teachers in classrooms. More significant is the regularity of a teacher's load. It appears to be assumed as reasonable for a secondary teacher to meet four to six different groups of children through a week and in each group there is likely to be twenty five or more pupils. Sizer claims that, "ways must be found to give high school teachers a load that allows them to personalise their work", (Sizer, 1984, p197) and Goodlad agrees when he states, "the demands of managing a relatively large group of people in a small space may become a formidable factor in determining and limiting pedagogy" (Goodlad, 1984, p111).

Teachers like Horace compromise to cope with these regularities and become comfortable with familiar routines, like well worn shoes, however inadequate they may be pedagogically. As one observer noted recently after studying educational reform attempts:

"...high school teachers face more than 150 students during a school day that is sliced into periods of less than an hour each; they teach five classes and prepare two or more lessons each day, which leaves them no time to grade papers at school or to meet with colleagues. Not surprisingly, they have little energy or time during or outside of class to explore ideas with students, to permit students to make errors that can then be reassessed, to listen as students try out new thoughts, question the text book, or question the teacher's

statements. Laboring under such conditions, even the best teachers are driven to make deals with students and to reduce opportunities for thinking in the classroom.

Eager reformers, unaware of the history of teacher-centred instruction as a response to difficult working conditions and of the negative effects of such practice on students' reasoning skills, have repeatedly urged teachers to teach students to think. Clearly, teachers are caught between using a pedagogy that works (given the organisational structures within which they labour) and responding to the reformers' urgings.

This dilemma has no simple solution." (Cuban, 1986, p10)

The reform urgings of Secondary Education: The Future demand that teachers assume an extensive repertoire of teaching competencies and characteristics that are necessary to provide the proposed learning outcomes. Changes by teachers in classrooms are vital. ForSizer "the game of school learning is won or lost in classrooms" (Sizer, 1984, p5) and the HMI maintain "If nothing happens in the classrooms the curriculum ideas remain paper exercises" (HMI, 1983, p34). But for classrooms and teachers to be affected the regularities of the culture in which they are placed will need to be addressed. Cuban again:

"To align the classroom setting to a student - centered pedagogy, reformers will have to attack the organizational arrangements that largely govern teacher routines, that determine the use of time and space in schools and classrooms, and that shape how and by whom instructional decisions are made. Until they attack these organizational arrangements, reformers eager to alter the prevailing core of teaching practices that sprang up over the last century in response to mind-numbing working conditions will fail. (Cuban 1986, p10)

Fundamental issues regarding organizational matters have been slightly attended to in Secondary Education: The Future as we have already seen. If, as these writers suggest, the organizational regularities of school cultures must be attended to before educational principles such as those espoused in Secondary Education: The Future can take root in schools and classrooms they perhaps deserve some acknowledgement in this section of the document.

One regularity so far not mentioned is perhaps the most significant - that is in the eggcrate organisation of schools which ensures that for the most part teachers are kept isolated from each other. Teachers rarely work together on school-wide problems (Sizer 1984, Goodlad 1984, Powell 1985, HMI 1983, and Hargreaves 1984). As we have seen it is precisely school-wide discussion and co-operative decision making which is implicit in the recommendations of recent Secondary reports, including Secondary Education: The Future. In questioning the place of traditional subjects in the curriculum and the stress on content and coverage the reports urge that school staffs enter sustained discussions on such matters as how individual subjects contribute to the range of essential experiences and what skills and competencies are common across subject departments. The Scott Committee made the point, "Because these areas of activity apply to all students and cut across subject boundaries, they become the concern of all teachers" (p83) Goodlad elaborates on what such teacher concern might involve when he talks about sustained discussion involving faculty,

"in developing understanding and appreciation of the kinds of learning to be sought in their students. It is not enough for teachers of English to concentrate only on grammar or composition. They must consider, also, how classes in English might serve to address the personal and social development of young people. If the teachers of each subject do not address such goals, who in schools will? The purpose of all this is to infuse an awareness that education involves more than the memorization of facts and the refinement of

motor skills ... involves the establishment of procedures for assessing curriculum balance." (p284)

Collegiality

Sustained discussion such as this requires time and human energy. As we saw in Chapter 3 when we touched on this issue school-wide discussion on educational policy is very difficult to achieve in practice. Nevertheless educators who have looked closely at schools and the process of change recommend it. Powell at the end of The Shopping Mall High School states firmly:

"If teachers talked more with each other about both education and students, the chances for productive exchange about the effects of their efforts on students would increase. They could begin to discuss curriculum in its proper and broad context: what students should know and be able to do at the end of high school, not everyone to the same extent but everyone in the same direction. Many of the most serious "life skills" that high schools can teach - speaking cogently, writing clearly, reading with understanding, listening with empathy, having facility with numbers, solving problems - are not the exclusive domain of one subject. They need constant reinforcement in many subjects throughout high school. Facility with numbers, for example, is forever doomed to be the exclusive possession of the mathematically and alienated unless it is practiced in courses ranging from science to the arts. But it will not be so used until math teachers and other teachers know what each other is teaching, when, to whom, and why - and until they can seriously discuss these connections with each other (Powell, 1985, p320).

The vital importance of collegiality, of focused teacher interaction and the forging of connections is seen to be essential for large scale successful change. Strategies for achieving these aims will be critical for implementation. This is because it is this very focused collegiality which can develop strategies to

attack the local school regularities which impinge on classroom pedagogy. Secondary Education: The Future acknowledges the need to develop collegiality for the development of teacher competencies and characteristics. The isolation of teachers does not facilitate the development of these competencies so the document states that:

"Teachers need to observe the practices and skills of others, and work together to improve their competencies" (5.1.4)

and,

"Energetic efforts must be made to create opportunities for teachers to work constructively and critically with each other throughout their working lives (5.1.6)

In remarking that teachers need to observe the practices and skills of others the authors of Secondary Education: The Future are supported by that most explicitly detailed report by Hargreaves which we have referred to in previous chapters. However for the Hargreaves committee observing others comes after some sustained self evaluation, a notion which deserves inclusion in Secondary Education: The Future. The ILEA report maintains:

"Teachers could facilitate pupil learning at all stages in the secondary school by the use of classroom observation techniques which would help them to gain deeper insights into their pupils' behaviour, learning, interaction with one another and with the teacher" (Hargreaves, 1984, P.105)

Goodlad, after extensive study of schools also believes that the learning process should begin with self evaluation of classrooms. He writes:

"If teachers can be persuaded to take the first step - namely an assessment of their own classrooms designed to provide the kinds of data presented here - a beginning will be made ... the upgrading of classroom life is best done on a school by

school basis. Teachers assist each other. Principals help create the setting and secure additional help from elsewhere". (Goodlad 1984, P.129)

Thus Goodlad maintains that teachers assess their own rooms, their own pedagogy, and then assist each other. In the same way the Hargreaves committee, after suggesting that teachers develop their observational skills in the mode of self evaluation, move next to an exploration of the notion of mutual observation. The ILEA committee acknowledge that teachers are often reluctant to enter each other's classrooms and shy away from observing or being observed. Many teachers, the committee claim, feel this suggestion is a threat, nevertheless they suggest that:

" 'Open-door' approaches to teaching contribute much to the raising of levels of teachers' expectations and the tightening of their job satisfaction, and we recommend that heads of departments incorporate classroom observation and co-teaching into departmental policies" (Hargreaves, 1984 P.106)

For this to occur one of the most critical regularities of secondary school life, the isolation of the classroom teacher will have to be broken down. One of the factors which prevents the sort of educational talk referred to by Powell and others is the subject department organisation of schools. These departments act as a fragmenting force in the school culture.

The idea that there should be learning about teaching on a continual basis is profound and deserves emphasis and the application of serious strategies to see that it happens for, "A sense of colleagueship, built around instruction is indispensable for the creation of common educational purpose" (Powell, 1985, p320).

Professional development

Having touched on the important matter of collegality Secondary Education: The Future continues by stating unequivocally the principle that:

"Teachers must continually update their knowledge to ensure that what students are taught is what they need to know" (5.2).

The view that teachers must continue to be learners and continue with their education is put by other writers on secondary education. For instance the Scott Report begins its discussion of the in-service education of teachers by acknowledging the need for teachers to view their professional life as one in which they are continually educating themselves as well as young people. "In a society in which constant change and expansion of knowledge is the norm, professional people need to undertake a program of continuous development if they are to keep up to date." (P.187) The discussion then proceeds to detail courses which it recommends teachers take through the Centre for the Continuing Education of Teachers. The responsibility of all teachers to comprehend and translate into classroom learning activities the fundamental understandings in the areas of language and reading development lies at the heart of the committee's recommendations.

While formal study is acknowledged to be important by all the writers explored so far the central context for teachers' learning is increasingly seen as the school itself and more precisely, as we have already seen, the classroom. John Goodlad argues early in his book A Place Called School that "the upgrading of classroom life is best done on a school by school basis" (Goodlad, 1984, P.129). Again we meet the notion of teacher collaboration which Goodlad develops as the idea of "a sense of ownership". He argues, "schools must become largely self directing. The people connected with it must develop a capacity for effecting renewal and establish mechanisms for doing this" (Ibid, p276). Schools, Goodlad argues, should be places where sustained discussion of the

goals of education takes place, "in developing understanding and appreciation of the kinds of learning to be sought in their students" (Ibid p283). The Hargreaves Committee have very similar views. They believe schools need a coherent policy of school improvement and explore notions of school evaluation and staff appraisal. Learning gleaned from observation of one's own environment, from colleagues' classrooms, from inter school visits, and supported by structured, co-ordinated in-service programs should continue, according to the Hargreaves committee, throughout a teacher's life. But the school, and the teacher in the school is the recommended central focus. The committee maintain that:

"There is a growing recognition among teachers that it is within the individual school that curriculum innovation and development, the implementation of whole school policies, and the continuing development of professional skills must be initiated. It is at grass roots level that teachers can best foster the development of existing good practice, identifying specific professional needs, challenge their own attitudes, assumptions and values and analyse their practice. Corporately, the teachers can plan and develop strategies, translate them into practice, and monitor and evaluate them. We believe that a pre-requisite of this co-operative and corporate activity is a climate of open discussion and dialogue among teachers, a willingness to share experiences and expertise and, most importantly, relationships of trust and mutual support. Such a school has been termed a 'problem-solving' or 'thinking' school where professional discussion plays an important part in both individual and whole staff development." (Hargreaves, 1984, Pp. 11-112)

Schools as learning communities

Secondary Education: The Future acknowledges that schools should be learning communities, such as those espoused by Goodlad in America and Hargreaves in the U.K., and maintains that such learning as occurs in these communities is a continuous process.

This they state as the last principle of this section on 'The Teacher' thus:

"All schools should implement a continuous program of staff development.

A school staff development program should enable teachers to review their practices regularly and implement changes where they are necessary. Teachers must collaborate in these processes and senior staff should give careful consideration to how best to create opportunities for all teachers to be involved" (5.4 and 5.4.12)

We have already discussed some of the school regularities which would require review and attention for such collaboration to have reasonable time within school life. Such a lot is encompassed by the words "how best to create opportunities"!

What sort of learners are teachers? If schools become learning communities how easy will it be for teachers to be learners too? One writer has explored the notion that the very culture of teaching has led most teachers to a position where it is difficult for them to be learners. David Hargreaves in his book The Challenge For The Comprehensive School, Culture Curriculum and Community (1982) spares no pity for teachers and their preparedness to be receptive to ideas for change. He writes savagely, in what he admits is a caricature portrait,

"One of the most striking characteristics of teachers is their addiction to didactic talk. Teachers are qualified in their subjects; they know; and they are not satisfied until they have told their pupils what they know ... The format by which the teacher lectures to, then questions, the whole class has proved highly resistant to change" (P.200)

and later

"Didactic talk marks teachers forever. It breeds a constant and obsessive desire to be expert, to be omniscient.

Teachers do not enjoy admitting, 'I don't know'; they condemn those words from the mouths of pupils too often to feel comfort in the same confession.

Teachers think of themselves as teachers, and so lose their capacity to be learners too". (1982, p201)

If this is even in part a truthful picture then any continuous program of staff development must consider ways of helping teachers become learners - not just in formal courses but in their own schools and classrooms. Clearly telling teachers how to change, that is using solely the didactic style will be unsuccessful and defeat the purpose. A subtle and complex web of strategies needs to be developed - a range of teaching teacher styles which respect and support the teacher as learner. Hargreaves himself continues by suggesting one such strategy is as we discussed earlier the breaking down of teacher isolation which "protects him from criticism but also precludes him from obtaining support and help ... Many attempted innovations flounder on this addiction to autonomy" (1982, p206) Hence strategies to break this regularity of autonomy in non-threatening and supportive ways will need to be part of the response to implementing change in secondary schools.

Neville Johnson agrees but takes a less savage approach to teachers' receptivity to learning. In a lecture to the Reading Association of Australia's 10th Australian Reading Conference (1984) Johnson spoke about teachers as learners. He began positively by claiming that teachers are good learners but not in his terms super learners! The conditions need to be right for learning and some of those conditions encompass the organisational regularities already discussed. Johnson maintains that teachers learn in ways similar to children and quotes research by Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers in California which shows that learning by teachers about changes in pedagogy is likely to take place if the following elements are all ensured:

- " . Study of the theoretical basis or rationale of the teaching method,
- . Observation of demonstrations by persons who are relatively expert in the model
- . Practice and feedback in protected conditions (such as trying out the strategy on each other and then on children who are relatively easy to teach)
- . And, finally, coaching one another as they work the new model into their repertoire, providing companionship, helping each other learn to teach the appropriate responses to their students, figuring out the optimal uses of the model in their courses, and providing one another with ideas and feedback" (Joyce and Showers, 1982, p5, my emphasis)

Johnson supports these ideas strongly and emphasises the importance of the last component. In his view if coaching is not built into the implementation strategies reformers should not have high expectations of their plans. Sizer is another writer who, as we have already seen, places an emphasis on coaching - this time with respect to teachers as learners. In Horace's Compromise he compares learning to teach with learning to write" ... like writing teaching is science, art and craft. ... One is helped to be a good teacher much as one is helped to be a good writer by coaching" (p191) The strategies of coaching, a most fascinating analogy, are; practice, example, telling, encouragement, reproof and most of all collaboration - working together on a shared task. Sizer writes:

"One learns to teach by coaching; one needs to be teaching in order to be coached. The best coaches are usually fine teachers themselves. The analogy to writing deserves endless emphasis" (p194)

Neville Johnson continued his lecture on teachers as learners by describing the majority of teachers as pragmatic sceptics. They want to know what a change proposal means in practical terms; they want to know whether a required change is able to be done (the instrumentality of the proposal); they want to know how it fits with what they are already doing (the congruence of the proposal) and finally they want to know what it will cost, that is will the time and considerable effort involved be worth it.

Johnson points out that not all teachers are ready to learn, some are considerably threatened by change and the request that they step out of the well-worn shoes, and can respond aggressively to strategies designed to move them. In Johnson's experience teachers who are flexible thinkers and are able to make connections between new ideas and their classroom experiences are more likely to implement changes to their pedagogy. For many it takes a long time to move beyond personal concerns. Finally Johnson warns that reformers must understand that not all teachers will reach the same stage of expertise.

Hence the literature (particularly Goodlad 1984, Sizer 1984, Hargreaves 1982-1984, Powell 1985, Johnson 1984, Joyce and Showers 1982) acknowledges that the role of learner is difficult for teachers. Difficult for many extrinsic and intrinsic reasons. Nevertheless teachers do not have to be the reluctant learners of Hargreave's 1982 portrait. There is some irony in the fact that the teaching profession does not have a glowing record of teaching itself! One of our unstated assumptions appears to have been that secondary teachers are well educated people, if curriculum materials are well written and intelligent articulate reports produced, translation into worthwhile classroom pedagogy will inevitably take place. Slowly we are learning that this is not generally the case. Secondary Education: The Future is to be commended for recognizing that teachers must work together as learners and it is to be hoped that strategies to support these principles will be forthcoming in every secondary school.

Counselling

The January edition of this section of Secondary Education: The Future includes an addition to the original Discussion Paper which acknowledges that there is a particular need for teachers to develop counselling skills.

"Teachers need the skills that enable them to act as effective tutors and counsellors" (5.3)

This provision supports and balances the section of the document under The Student which argues for personal tutoring and counselling of students (e.g. 4.1.4). The pastoral or welfare responsibilities of teachers are acknowledged by other reports. Scott maintained that new in-service programs were required to develop "skills in developing sound relationships in the school - particularly in relation to the effective functioning of pastoral care programs within the school" (Scott, 1977, P.189). Powell finishes his The Shopping Mall High School by arguing that it is important to personalize the learning experience. He writes:

"Personalization has a human and a professional dimension. The human side involves knowing students from the point of view of a concerned adult friend, while the professional side adds the element of specialized knowledge about particular strengths and weaknesses in learning ... All teachers and indeed all school-based professionals should advise students on a regular basis. Therapeutic Skills are not what most students need from advisors. What they need are adults who know them as unique learners complex and distinctive" (Powell, 1985, p318)

This links significantly with Csikszentmihalyi and Larson's arguments which were summarised in the previous chapter. The Biddick School also referred to in the chapter 'Active Learners' is a good example of the cohesion of the pastoral and academic curriculum which Powell is describing. And at Biddick it is

achieved by a commitment to teachers as learners, (Baker, N., Times Educational Supplement 4.4.86)

The Hargreaves committee (1984) acknowledge that the pastoral or welfare curriculum suffers from the historic separation of pastoral and academic systems. They maintain that the attitude has developed that pastoral work does not demand intellectual ability, specific knowledge and skills. (1984, P.110) It has been conceived, in other words, as a side line activity. By including an explicit statement incorporating the pastoral responsibilities of teachers Secondary Education: The Future seeks to redress this situation. Nevertheless as Powell understands from his team's detailed study of schools:

"Adults need time to play this role and need the institutional expectation that they play it ... In a more specialized way, schools and teachers should accommodate differences in how students learn rather than preferences about whether they should learn. It may be that the greatest impact of the Special - needs movement will be to provide broad models for recognizing that every teenager is in some sense special and therefore requires some individual planning, based on assessments of the student's work, consultations among teachers, and discussions between school people and the students parents" (Powell, 1985, p318)

But these ideas are absurd, Powell maintains, in the face of the number of students teachers regularly have contact with on a weekly basis. This is a matter which will have to be addressed if this principle in Secondary Education: The Future is to be more than a paper exercise.

The role of the Principal

One final point remains to be made about this section of Secondary Education: The Future - "The Teacher". It may be that the word "teacher" is meant broadly and encompasses all, from the lowly first year entrant to the profession, to the Principal. I believe

it is unlikely that "teacher" will be so broadly interpreted. At one point there is passing reference to the responsibility of senior staff who should "give careful consideration" to facilitating teacher collaboration. Hence it is reasonable to assume that the competencies, characteristics and general comments apply to the status of teacher. If this is the case it is a weakness of the document to bypass the mass of literature (including Scott 1977, HMI 1983, Goodlad, 1984,Sizer 1984, Hargreaves 1984, Lightfoot 1984) which acknowledges the critical position of the Principal in effecting change in schools. For instance Sara Lawrence Lightfoot writes that the, "essential ingredient of good schools is strong, consistent and inspired leadership" (Lightfoot 1984 p323). This is particularly relevant when the learning context for teachers is understood to be primarily the school, and this is precisely the position taken by the authors of Secondary Education: The Future. The only Tasmanian school portrait of a successful school makes the same point for there "Eddie is the Boss" (McCann, H., 1987, p6). Professor Starratt in a lecture presented at a dinner of the Southern Tasmanian Council of Educational Administration (July 10, 1985) examined the leadership role of Principals in broader terms than that usually seen in the literature on effective schools. Starratt acknowledged the need for schools to develop a broad range of intelligencies in young people such as discussed in chapter 3 and proposed a model which encompassed a theory of leadership - leadership as communal institutionalizing of a vision. He argued that there are six elements of this paradigm of leadership which are constantly in dynamic interaction.

"The six - elements involve the following:

- . Vision
- . Dramatic consciousness
- . Communal sharing of the vision

- . Transformation of institutional structures and processes by the vision
- . Institutional living out of the vision in essential decisions
- . Institutional celebration of the vision" (Starratt, 1985, P.15)

These six elements can be expressed in propositional form:

- "1. The Leader's power is rooted in a vision that is itself rooted in something basic to human life.
2. That vision illuminates the ordinary with dramatic significance.
3. The leader articulates that vision in such compelling ways that it becomes the shared vision of the leader's colleagues, and it illuminates their ordinary activities with dramatic significance.
4. The leader implants the vision in the structures and processes of the organization, so that people experience the vision in the various patterned activities of the organisation.
5. The leader and colleagues make day-to-day decisions in light of that vision, so that the vision becomes the heart of the culture of the organization.
6. All the members of the organization celebrates the vision in ritual, ceremonies and art forms.

(Starratt, 1985, p15)

Starratt discusses these propositions at length and acknowledges that this is a complex theory of leadership.

The theory holds that

- " . The leader has to be an authentic human being who is rooted in some clear intuitions about what it means to be a human being and who lives out as fully as possible those intuitions.
- . The leader has to be an educator - an educated person who understands our history, our culture, the critical issues facing the human community - a person who has a vision of what schools can be - a place that nurtures the growth of children toward functional literary and cultural maturity, individual integrity and civil responsibility.
- . The leader also breaks down the dichotomy between task and people one finds in several theories of leadership, by inviting the people in the school to define or identify the basic meaning and a significance of what they do together. This effort, thus, writes the faculty behind their common espousal of the vision and purposes of the school and energizes their work with that deeper meaning.
- . The leader has to know how the school as an organization works. Like a mechanic who understands the insides of an engine, or a physician who understands the workings of the human body, the leader understands the structures and processes - both formal and informal - of the school. Based on that understanding the leader works to transform those structures and processes so that they reflect more consistently, the shared vision and purpose of the school" (Starratt, 1985 Pp. 19-20)

There are competencies and characteristics embedded in all of this which are vital for effectively giving vision to, inspiring common ownership of and translating into action the principles of

Secondary Education: The Future. The Principal's leadership role is a sorry omission.

Starratt's final element of leadership involves celebration. This notion of celebration was a most laudable addition to "The Student" section of Secondary Education: The Future. Perhaps something similar might have been included in this section. Teachers' learning is a continual activity for as Sara Lawrence Lightfoot observed "goodness is imperfect and changing ... schools are changing institutions" (1984 P.24). As we have seen in this chapter the road to improving teaching is not only continual but fraught with obstacles. Teachers achievements must be valued by schools and the wider system. Teachers achievements must be celebrated.

CHAPTER 7

PARTNERSHIP WITH PARENTS AND THE COMMUNITYPartnership

The final section of the policy document looks insubstantial. It did not exist at all in the Discussion Paper although comments relating to parents are scattered throughout the document. Initially the place of the wider community received no comment at all. This lack brought some criticism but the section "Parents and the Community", when it made its appearance in the January edition looked no more than what it was, an afterthought. However, it does need to be acknowledged that the section builds on references to parents in the body of the other sections:

"Some parents have had few opportunities to see the benefits further education offers in a modern economy and society".
(2.1.4)

"Many parents in isolated areas lack the money to send their children to a secondary college. Other country parents who can afford to send their children to a secondary college believe that their children are not ready to leave home at fifteen years of age. Nor do they want them to leave."
(2.2.2)

"Students and their parents should be consulted and counselled to ensure that appropriate choices are made."
(3.2.2)

"Courses should be selected and developed in consultation with students and their parents." (4.3)

"..This consultative approach should be deliberately and systematically extended to parents so that they are better able to provide the support at home that all students needs."
(4.3.1)

"There may still be students whose behaviour causes severe problems for themselves and others. Schools may need to call on support services or outside agencies, and work in close collaboration with them and with parents in dealing with these students." (4.4.4)

Assessment should "... point to the means whereby students, teachers and parents can improve levels of achievement." (4.5.2)

A competency that should be developed by teachers is "working productively with other teachers, parents and members of the community." (5.1.3)

"Teachers also have to be able to communicate effectively with parents and members of the community to gain their support and co-operation, and to be receptive to their suggestions." (5.3.3)

These are quoted in full because when put together in this way they indicate clearly that some notion of schools working in partnership with parents is a firmly held position in Secondary Education: The Future. The term 'partnership' is not used in the policy document but is common in educational discourse (parents as partners) and in the literature (for example Partners: Parents and Schools ed. Ronald S. Brandt). What counts as partnership? Hugh Sockett in an article entitled "The School Curriculum: A Basis for Partnership" considers partnership to encompass parents, the wider community and government. He defines partnership thus:

"I take it to be the participation in a common pursuit of parties with distinctive responsibilities. These different responsibilities are acknowledged by the different parties and they may arise either from law or from convention. Partnership is primarily a matter of trust and confidence: it carries therefore necessary attitudes to others if it is to function... Effective partnership therefore involves three

things: an understanding of the other partner's rights and responsibilities, a common commitment, and trust and confidence." (Sockett, 1987, p35).

Partnership is therefore a difficult and challenging human enterprise which the easy slogan "parents as partners" sometimes appears to overlook. The slight final section of the policy document may not communicate a sense of conviction to the superficial reader or the practical implications and difficulties involved.

The Community

Recognition that the relationship between schools and parents and the wider community must be improved and systematically attended to is a theme running through all recent reports. TEND (1978) felt that there should be greater community participation with schools and strongly encouraged increased levels of school participation in the community. Margaret Marshall (1983), Hargreaves (1982 and 1984) and Goodlad (1984) make similar points. The Beazley committee elaborate the argument as follows:

"There is wide spread agreement among parents, community groups and educators that schools can achieve more for individual students and for the community as a whole if there is congruence between the objectives of the school and the community it serves. For this to be achieved there is a persistent need to improve the quality of communication between professional educators on the one hand and parents and the community on the others. To shape relevant and effective programs, schools must have an understanding of the community's needs and the out of school experiences of their students. This is only possible when the community, teachers and students acknowledge from a position of trust that each has an essential part to play both through the exercise of decision making powers and the consideration and exchange of views about underlying issues.

... schools therefore have a special responsibility not only to set up and support means by which participation is possible, but also to ensure that the process of interaction occurs." (Beazley, 1984, P256)

Secondary Education: The Future makes Beazley's point more succinctly when it states as a principle,

"Schools and the community are interdependent." (6.1)

This is elaborated by comments which maintain that the school depends on the community for support and that parents and the community depend on schools to provide an education that will help young people, "make their way in life and contribute to the common good" (6.1.2). This warm circuitous statement does not address an issue of immediate concern when one considers turning the platitude into practical effect. What in fact is the school's community? Is it drawn from the geographic suburban sprawl in which some secondary schools find themselves? Should it include the urban heart, the business district, and if so, in what sense can suburban high schools, some isolated geographically and culturally from cities, be part of an urban community? Does the term "community" even assume some broader cultural, national connotations? This section might have been more precise.

Hargreaves in the 1984 ILEA report acknowledges just this problem:

"the difficulty of defining precisely what is meant by the term 'community'. To most people the concept has romantic, nostalgic, even rural connotations which seem remote from the realities of contemporary London. At the heart of a great city most people belong to multiple communities - home, neighbourhood, linguistic, ethnic, cultural, political, religious, occupational, and recreational. The 'whole community' is never more than a convenient and somewhat misleading shorthand for a complex of overlapping communities, some of which interlock, some of which are in conflict. When we speak of 'school and community' therefore

we mean that network of communities in which the modern citizen lives." (3.14.2, P82)

A policy statement ought properly to be more precise in its use of terms such as 'community' the better to guide translation of ideas into practice. The second and last principle in this brief section of the document is also very sweeping.

"Teachers and educators at all levels in the Education system should consult and work with students, parents and community representatives." (6.2)

It would be difficult for any reader to disagree with this. In a sense the idea has been covered already (in 3.2.2, 4.3, 4.3.1, 4.4.4, 5.1.3 and 5.3.3) and the repetition does nothing to add to the earlier propositions. Nor do the comments which follow the principle elaborate what is meant by "consult and work with". The nature of the liaison with the community (including parents) and some principles guiding that liaison are not included. Further elaboration could have usefully stressed themes made elsewhere in the policy document and specifically made important links with the comments in the first section on trends in society.

Society is changing, the network of communities, of which the school is a part, are embedded in this society. The macro trends impinge on the micro. An ecological analogy is inevitable. John Goodlad in his chapter "Beyond the Schools We Have" discusses the ecological view of each community's educational system. An ecological notion appears to be embedded too in Secondary Education: The Future's belief that schools and communities are "interdependent". Hence it is relevant to see how Goodlad elaborates his thesis. He begins by maintaining that education is not confined to schools.

"The schools may be the only institution charged exclusively with the educational function, but the ability and responsibility of others to educate is recognised and cultivated. There is not one agency, but an ecology of

institutions educating - school, home, places of worship, television, press, museum, libraries, businesses, factories and more." (1984, P350)

This, for Goodlad, is an educational ecosystem, and this thesis clarifies one aspect of what Secondary Education: The Future might mean when the interdependence of schools and communities is maintained as a principle of the policy. That is that other sections of the community, or networks of communities, such as those Goodlad refers to in the list quoted above, might legitimately have some educational responsibility for young people. This view also allows schools to reasonably restrict what they try to achieve. This is fundamental to Goodlad's purpose. He maintains that a school should more sharply delineate its own role.

"The ecological perspective, properly understood and implemented, assures that schools will not take on functions or tasks likely to corrupt the general education they appropriately provide. Schools have muddled their proper roles to the point of obliterating them by taking on many things appearing to be good." (1984, P352)

The Hargreaves report also discusses at length the need for young people to seek education outside the school. The report stresses the educational opportunities to be found in some selected communities - the home, the neighbourhood, industry and commerce and the trade unions. The committee states,

"The effective education of the young is a joint enterprise among several partners and any attempt to improve education of the young must involve all the partners. This is a central theme of our Report." (hargreaves, 1984, p14).

Like Goodlad they are concerned to make learning more relevant and see the interaction of young people and adults from a variety of communities as vital to this purpose. The purpose is clearly stated,

"We emphasise the importance of bringing into the school adults other than parents, such as men and women from industry and commerce and from the trade unions. To complement this we have proposed that pupils should regularly be taken out of the school to pursue their learning in the community. Such two-way traffic between the school and the community will, we believe, make pupil learning more interesting, relevant and motivated." (Hargreaves, 1984, p81).

Continuing life-long education

Where Goodlad is primarily concerned to keep within the school responsibilities it can manage, the underpinning concept behind the Hargreaves committee's position is the idea of continuing or life long education. Connecting schools with the network of communities seeks to promote through experience the idea of recurrent education. Specifically the Hargreaves committee gives two reasons for arguing that the concept of continuing education is critical.

"First the changing patterns of employment and unemployment require a new flexibility in the education service, since many people will need access to education at all stages of their lives, and in less traditional ways than hither to, to meet their needs for retraining and for leisure. Secondly if priority is to be given to equality of opportunity, many people require from the education system a constant succession of additional opportunities by which they can rectify past mistakes." (1984, p82).

The Inner London Education Authority committee are particularly concerned about the underachieving, the disaffected, and working class pupils. For this group to find meaningful lives in a time of uncertainty and rapid change the committee believes it is critical that while they are at school they should be made aware of the importance of lifelong education and of the opportunities

which will be open to them after they leave school. Furthermore the committee states that this cannot,

"be achieved through acts of telling, either by teachers or by booklets, important though these are. Rather, the message must, in our view, be transmitted through the practices of the school." (1984, 3.14.7, P83)

The school's responsibility, as we have seen in earlier chapters of this review of Secondary Education: The Future is to engage young people with learning. A recent OECD report Facets of the Transition to Adulthood puts the matter bluntly:

"Recurrent education makes it more important than ever that as many children as possible should acquire the abilities, reach the standards, and develop the feelings of competence and confidence that encourage them to seek and profit from later opportunities." (1986, P15)

This critical concept of the importance of continuing, life-long learning, and the urgency of providing learning experiences at school which facilitate recurrent education is part of the rationale for schools interacting more positively with the network of communities in which they are placed. Secondary Education: The Future ought to have more clearly articulated this theme. It is touched on, or hinted at briefly. In contrast a South Australian document Making Things Work - Learning for Competence and Enterprise (Gilding Chair.) picks up the economic debate outlined in chapter 2 of this dissertation but does not place full responsibility on schools for the development of essential skills. Rather it repeatedly stresses the schools role in a continuum of life long education. For instance,

"Schools have a responsibility to lay a foundation for practical life-long learning by encouraging all young people to participate in a broad and rigorous general education." (Gilding, 1986, p).

In additions to the Discussion Paper we find in the May document.

"If students are to be encouraged to develop to their own level of excellence throughout their education, each student's successes and achievements are incentives to further learning." (2.3.5)

and further on,

"Then there are competencies that enable students to extend further the ability to learn and go on learning throughout life." (3.4.3)

but these two statements do not explicitly propose the importance of school learning as a basis for continuing life-long learning. It is an unfortunate omission.

Working Communities

Goodlad and Hargreaves stress the need to co-ordinate the educational ecosystem, and Secondary Education: The Future maintains that the links must "be practised diligently and systematically" (6.2.1). The metaphor of an ecosystem should remind us of the fragility of the links which bind the separate parts together. Ad hoc links with the communities of industry and commerce through work experience which do not also connect with the formal curriculum are not good enough, according to the Hargreaves committee. Nor, the ILEA report makes clear, should the interaction between schools and the communities of industry and commerce provided by work experience, be restricted to low achieving or difficult students as is so often the case. The development of work experience in recent years has led schools to communicate far more with aspects of the wider community. Nevertheless as the Hargreaves committee points out schools and classrooms have remained too cut off from their communities, too self contained. These limitations greatly restrict teachers' understanding of the breadth of life's opportunities. Hargreaves maintains that,

"such opportunities have to be made accessible to young people to aid in their transition to adult life. School teachers are inadequate as sole models of adult living. Work experience is one way of providing vital interaction with adults other than teachers."

As we saw in an earlier chapter of this review, adult models who act in ways which can be perceived and understood are vitally important. If teachers are inadequate as sole models then this provides another rationale for schools consulting and working with the network of communities more diligently and systematically as proposed by Secondary Education: The Future. One implication might be the instigation of teacher internships in commerce and industry. In parts of America these are sponsored by employers during the summer vacation. (Gold, 1987, p384). The OECD report already referred to supports the view that teachers may be limited in the support they can give young adults. The report maintains that,

"Establishing educational relationships with young adults appears to depend more on attitudes and inter-personal skills than buildings, physical equipment and formal organisation. It requires teachers to limit authority deliberately, but not to abandon it ... Effective educators often describe themselves not as teachers but enablers, facilitators or counsellors who work with interactive and co-operative groups whose members participate in decision-making ... An aim is to replace teacher-pupil with supervisor-worker relationships. Conventional teacher training and experience in secondary classrooms could result in a trained incapacity to work constructively with young adults." (1986, P18)

Hence work experience schemes introduce young people to adults with diverse opinions, judgements and views which may help students to re-assess their worth and their capacities in a way classroom experiences do not allow. Hargreaves claims that the most successful and most motivating schemes,

"appear to be those where the pupils feel themselves treated differently from in school - valued as adults or colleagues, given responsibility or trust and (most importantly) measured and assessed against a different scale of values." (3.15.15, P87)

This review has already outlined arguments for active learning roles for young people in schools and classrooms, for increased participation in decision making and increased responsibility. These should be complemented by an increased involvement with a variety of communities outside the school. The OECD report referred to above sums the matter up by quoting from Education and Training After Basic Schooling,

"Training for various social roles, providing for transition to adulthood and to employment, require by definition a variety of experiences which no single setting can provide..." (1985, P87)

Perhaps these experiences need to be orchestrated by groups other than schools. For instance Peter Kirby proposes in The Reports of the Committee of Enquiry into Labour Market Programs government organised traineeships for youth. "The concept is for a pathway from school to long-term employment through carefully structured experiences and education training and work." (Anderson, 1985, p5). The scheme attempts to redress the separateness of the young adult from the community by a compromise between active involvement in work and out of work skills training. As Anderson puts it:

"The proposals for traineeships implicitly recognise what many research studies have shown, that a dominant theme in the motivation of a majority of young people at school is to become a 'worker'. This in turn is associated with a strong drive of adolescents for adult identity." (Anderson, 1985, p16).

The report places responsibility for the development of broad-based transferable skills with TAFE but Anderson sensibly points out that as these skills are analogous to a good general education, secondary schools should also be involved. Hence the report argues for young people to be systematically and deliberately placed in working communities with adults who can provide models (the medieval system). In the U.K. pre-vocational courses have been mushrooming over the past few years. A notable example the Technical and Vocational and Educational Initiative (TVEI) is organised by the Manpower Commission. This stresses a partnership between industry and education but the orchestration and financing has come from outside the education system. Other courses which connect young people with the world of work in innovative ways include: the Royal Society of Arts pre-vocational certificates and profiles; the City and Guilds of London Institute pre-vocational courses and certificates; the Certificate of Pre-vocational Education (CPUE) and BTEC General Award in Business Studies. These certificating agencies all provide specific practical ideas for schools planning to open the boundaries which separate them from their communities.

The separate school

The separate school is the focus of attention in Stephen Kemmis, Peter Cole and Dahle Suggett's booklet Towards the Socially Critical School. In discussing the issue of transition they maintain:

"The long-term solution to the transition problems must be found in the school as a part of mainstream society, not as a separate and isolated element. The long-term solution of the transition problem must be a transformation of schools as we know them, not a tinkering at the edges of our present structures... schools are part of society, not separate from it." (Kemmis et al, 1983, pp6-7).

If schools must make the boundaries between themselves and their communities more fluid the partnership involved requires that the

schools accept a process of critical, formative, evaluation (Kemmis et al, Sockett). Young people, too, as I have argued elsewhere in this paper, must be partners in the process. The school as a community within a community must face the question posed by David Hargreaves, "What kind of society do we want to create and how can the education system help us to realise such a society?" (Hargreaves, 1982, p113). He answers his own questions by discussing the need for a community-centred curriculum whose task is to expand its conception of community and "to unravel the skills and knowledge that are required for participation". (p135) What is described re-states themes reiterated throughout this paper, that is the student is an active participant, a meaningful member of multiple groups and communities within a school. A corporate spirit should be revived, Hargreaves argues. This is not education about citizenship and the democratic society that is proposed but involvement as a citizen in a working democratic society - the school, with interdependence and interaction between the school and the community.

Parents

The placement of a section in the policy document inevitably carries implicit messages about priority. Several respondents to the Discussion Paper criticised the order of the sections. Most who did so would have preferred to see the student section first. Placing the section on parents and the community at the end, making it so brief, and blurring the two essentially separate concerns of a school's relationship with its parents and the wider network of communities, appears to overlook the very vital role of parents in their children's education. As we have already seen the document acknowledges this role explicitly at several points; however, in the section put aside for parents develops no general principles which focus on the essential role parents play in their children's education.

Again it is interesting to compare Secondary Education: The Future with the ILEA report. In the latter document the relationship between schools and their parents is accorded a vital place by

being the first substantial section of the report. Parents and their involvement with schools is the first topic of the committee's report because, "we believe that an increase in pupil achievement and a reduction in disaffection are contingent upon a much greater involvement of parents in co-operation with teachers, in the life and work of schools". (Hargreaves, 1984, 3.14.1, P81). Given this level of importance parents should have been accorded principles in Secondary Education: The Future which referred specifically to their role, together with some guiding statements for schools. A seminar conducted by the Southern Tasmanian Council of State School Parents and Friends Association in November 1986, came up with some possibilities.

"It is a widely accepted fact that when parents are interested, and involved in the education of their children, the children are motivated." (1.1)

"Teacher-parent communication is vital in the development of a co-operative home-school relationship, necessary in the full educational development of the child." (1.2) and

"In establishing effective communication links, it is necessary for parents and teachers to have mutual understanding of and respect for, each other's role" (1.3 Parent-Teacher Communication, November, 1986).

Supportive statements might well have been guided by both the ILEA Report and 'Parent-Teacher Communication'. In discussing the involvement of parents the Hargreaves committee stresses the importance of co-operative home-school relations and acknowledges that risks are inevitable when schools reach out to parents. "But unless the school takes these risks, the proper partnership between home and school can never be established" (Hargreaves, 1984, 3.1.4, P14). The Tasmanian group discuss the roles of parents and teachers and maintain that it is,

"necessary to identify the inhibitory influences on positive parent-teacher communication before practical solutions can

be explored e.g. lack of policy at school level on communication with parents." (3.12)

A further guide to statements supporting the need for co-operative home-school relationships might be derived from what the Hargreaves committee call basic questions which schools should ask themselves. They are:

- . What are the most effective methods of bringing parents into the school?
- . How welcoming is the school?
- . How does the school communicate with parents? and,
- . How does the school involve the parents in what the child learns at school? (Hargreaves, 1984, p14)

But a note of caution is relevant at this point. Families are changing. In many cases where there are two parents both are working and it is unrealistic to assume that all parents have the time for specific involvement in schools. Shirley Brice Heath and Milbrey McLaughlin warn in a Phi Delta Kappan article,

"Dual career families, like single-parent families, have precious little time or energy to spend working as partners in their children's education, visiting the school, attending conferences, or providing extra curricular activities for their children." (1987, p578)

They go on to describe how children can gain valuable educative experiences from a range of community institutions (such as child care centres) and volunteer agencies (such as scouts) which give access to adults with a wide range of talents and perspectives not likely to be found within a single family. Hence they are maintaining that a focus on parents as partners is outdated and narrowing in its educational potential. They continue,

"The problems of family/school relations in the 1980s have multiple causes that are too complex, too varied, too enmeshed with larger social realities to respond to single-policy situations, such as parent partnerships, parent involvement mechanisms and the like." (p579)

They maintain that the central focus should be a "a consideration of the functions of educating, nurturing, and supporting that are required to develop competent adults in the light of the institutional resources available" (p579). Hence they are not arguing against parents as partners as such, but the narrowness of some who view parent involvement as some kind of panacea. Their argument gives a different slant to the notion of the community already discussed above. There the term 'community' encompasses the adult working world and the connection of young people with that world. Here Heath and McLaughlin remind us that there is also the community of educators outside the school structure already involved with large groups of children.

"This change in perspective draws attention to the child as actor in a larger social system and to the institutional networks and resources present in the larger environment. It requires us to look beyond family and school to get a full view of the primary networks that make up a child's environment. We can then think of the school as a nexus of institutions within this environment." (p579)

This is an interesting challenge to educators. Heath and McLaughlin finish by arguing that within this framework the school moves from the role of "deliverer" of educational services to the role of "broker" of the multiple services that can be used 'to achieve the functions previously filled by families or by families and schools acting together' (p579). Again we have the notion of an ecosystem with the school at the nexus of a wider inter-related community.

Nevertheless there are parents who want to be involved with their children's schools and 'Parent-Teacher Communication' provides

very practical suggestions under the headings: 'What Parents can do to enhance the educational opportunity for their children' and "What Teachers can do to strengthen the communication between home and school and enhance the educational opportunity for children'. It also includes a list of recommendations, one of which is,

"EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

A policy statement which expresses the importance of communicating with parents be issued to schools. The co-operation of principals, senior staff and the school as a whole can only be effected if it is a matter of Departmental policy." (6.2)

Secondary Education: The Future is that policy statement. However, it is the contention of this review that while it is reasonable to discuss parents and the community in the same section, each deserves discrete, explicit and elaborated statements. Neither has been accorded the clarity and precision they deserve.

CHAPTER 8

IMPLEMENTATION: THE SELF RENEWING SCHOOLThe Policy Document

Secondary Education: The Future is a spare policy document. The twenty-three principles are accompanied by succinct statements which expand the central idea. There are no elaborate discussions, definitions or debates. No literature is drawn on explicitly for supporting evidence nor is material drawn from schools to illustrate practice. The policy document is also not a plan or a template but only "bundles of potentialities". (Farrar et al 1980, P.96).

The principles range from those which are very general, such as the first;

"The Education Department should provide a continuous curriculum that extends from Kindergarten to year 12" (2.1)

to others which are rather more specific;

"Students should prepare records of their achievements to help them enter adult life." (4.6)

Whether the principle is expressed in general or specific terms it carries with it a host of practical implications which require further explication. Hence the policy document offers wide ranging guidelines rather than explicit recommendations. These guidelines provide goals for the future of secondary education in Tasmania. Taken as a whole the principles make up an extremely complex proposal for change.

Paradoxically complex, ambitious proposals for change such as those outlined in Secondary Education: The Future can gain commitment from teachers in the long term precisely because so much is being attempted (Berman and McLaughlin 1978, P.25). However Ivor Morrish (1976) and Michael Fullan (1982b) because they recognise the actual complexity of school life, warn that successful implementation is unlikely when it is not clear what the change proposals mean in practice. The previous chapters of this study indicate that the practical implications of Secondary Education: The Future are not always as clear as they might be. In fact teasing out these practical implications is the task set central, regional and school personnel thus allowing for a variety of legitimate interpretations (Farrar et al P.96).

Because of the general nature of the policy document central prescriptions in specific terms do not exist and a fidelity approach to implementation, which assumes clarity of description and faithful implementation, is not suggested. Rather, "each school community has the opportunity and responsibility to fashion the details of its own response to external change". (Education Department documents 1986-87). That is, the policy document assumes a process of mutual adaptation (Fullan and Pomfret 1977) or an evolutionary perspective (Farrar et al 1980) which stresses that change often is and even should be a result of adaptations and decisions taken by teachers as they work with the policy document. Ross (1980) states that there is, "ample evidence that change is more likely to occur if there is extensive local adaptations of curricular innovations" (P.229) That is, teachers must be able to make their own meanings according to their own contexts, modifying changes and integrating them into their existing teaching persona. McLaughlin agrees. In a paper entitled "Implementation as Mutual Adaptation: Change in Classroom Organization", (1976) she states;

"Where implementation was successful, and where significant change in participant attitudes, skills and behaviour occurred, implementation was characterized by a process of mutual adaptation in which project goals and methods were

modified to suit the needs and interests of participants and in which participants changed to meet the requirements of the project" (P.341).

It is a positive feature of Secondary Education: The Future that because the principles are expressed in general terms mutual adaptation is allowed for as principles are translated into their practical implications and strategies for implementing the principles are devised and instigated.

Practical Implications

This study has attempted to place the principles into the context of local, national and international debate and discussion. I have also drawn out certain practical implications which struck me as particularly significant for the process of implementation. Some of the main implications from each section appear to be:

- . The concern about maintaining democracy leads to implications for the process of implementation. In the system, in regions and in schools a participative democratic model needs to be in place. Consultative and collaborative mechanisms are required to build and maintain the constituencies of which Kirst and Meister wrote.
- . The notion of continuity again highlights the need for the collaboration and co-operation of teachers across transition points with the need for a particular focus on methodology. Implications for the provision of time for this to take place raise questions about school organisations, timetabling etc.
- . School-wide and departmental discussions are implied by the arguments for fields of knowledge and experience and the inclusion of competencies in the curriculum. These are theoretical constructs to use as tools for the provision of a coherent, quality and meaningful curriculum for each child.

- . Students are required to be more actively involved in the process of learning negotiating content and process and developing the skills of self assessment.
- . Teachers are required to continue their professional development throughout their careers and to work in a collegial fashion on practice and the provision of a social environment conducive to learning. The implications for organisation, timetabling and leadership are enormous.
- . Schools are required to have fluid boundaries with their communities.

These practical implications are still couched in very general terms and each breaks down into increasingly specific items as practical possibilities and constraints are further explored. Clarity needs to be achieved about this matter for as Fullan points out from his extensive review of research (1982a and b), "a clear, practical picture of the discrepancy between current practice and what is proposed and the development or acquisition of quality materials constitute one major barrier to implementation". (Fullan, 1982a P.251).

Supporting Materials

In exploring the practical implications in earlier chapters of this study I have occasionally noted vagueness or lack of precision in the statement of principles. At these points I have commented that there is need for a more explicit statement or remarked that supporting material, such as the booklets prepared in Victoria for implementation of Ministerial Paper No. 6, might have accompanied the release of the policy document. The key areas requiring supporting material appear to me to be:

Providing links between primary and secondary schools
Competencies, their place in practice

Language and learning in secondary schools

Assessment (Descriptive, work required, goal based,
criteria-based, self assessment and assessment
of the affective areas)

Record keeping

Records of Achievement

School Organisation

Teaching repertoire and purposes

Establishing a social environment conducive to learning

Working with parents (The parents own conference summary
referred to in chapter 7 would
suffice here)

Involving communities

Some supporting materials had been prepared prior or immediately following the May release of Secondary Education: The Future. These include:

- . Taking Part: A Support Paper on Student Participation Prepared During International Youth Year by Eva Dunn, Education Department, Tasmania, 1986.
- . Let's Look At ... Disruptive Behaviour in Secondary Schools, Education Department, Tasmania, 1986 (Lorraine Murphy)
- . A Framework for Positive Approaches to Students' Behaviour by Lorraine Murphy, Education Department, Tasmania, 1986.
- . Work and Daily Life: Its Application To The Curriculum Part I: Work Studies .. A Discussion Paper August 1986, Education Department of Tasmania
- . Health Education in Tasmanian Schools and Colleges, Education Department of Tasmania, 1987.
- . Everything's A Story by Betty Klaosen, Hilary Phillips and Hugo McCann, Education Department, Tasmania, 1986

and most recently

- . Supportive School Environments, A Student Services Position Paper, October 1987.

Fullan (1982b) maintains that different kinds of materials are needed at various stages of the implementation process. While general awareness of the policy document is the main concern concise overview statements which elaborate various aspects of the policy document are best. Lorraine Murphy's booklets cited above are good examples. As the implementation phase progresses Fullan claims that materials need to be well organised and address teachers' practical how-to-do-it concerns as Eva Dunn's booklet does. Nevertheless Fullan warns that confidence that quality materials, even so called "teacher-proof" materials, will lead to successful implementation is misplaced. These efforts are, "oblivious to the fact that implementation is a social process, not a delivery date". (Fullan 1982b, P.60).

In the middle of 1987 a group of central services personnel met together to prepare supporting materials for Secondary Renewal. These range from concise overview statements, for example on criteria based assessment to more practical how-to-do-it documents such as one on record keeping. The completed papers which were ready for distribution in Term III 1987 include:

- . Implementation Framework 1987-88 - which gives an outline of the assumptions, expectations and resources as they relate to the proposed changes.
- . Collected together under the title, A Portfolio of Working Papers Support Materials for School Development Activities are:
 - . Criterion-based Assessment
 - . Syllabus Design
 - . Using Criteria to Determine Awards
 - . Some Key Questions
 - . Meeting the Needs of All Students

- . Planning for Work and Daily Life in the Curriculum
- . Competencies into Action
- . Health Education

Additional papers were prepared for use in school-based workshops with services personnel. These papers include:

- . An Introduction to Records of Achievement
- . Record Keeping - An Introduction
- . The Change Process
- . Monitoring and Reflecting on Change
- . Work Studies - A Discussion Paper
- . Technology for Life and Work in our Society
- . Self Assessment
- . Assessment and Learning - A Practical Guide to the Assessment Process
- . School Snakes and Ladders - A Staff Development Activity, Addressing some Barriers to Effective Schooling
- . Curriculum Organisation

None of this documentation reached schools in 1987 because of the bans placed on Secondary Renewal activities by the Tasmanian Teachers Federation early in Third Term.

Implementation framework

Secondary Education: The Future contains no statement about implementation. No general principles of this vital process are enunciated. Teachers note the absence. Lawrence Ingvarson quotes one response:

"Schools and teachers are developing a siege mentality; they feel bombarded by new policies and directions for change which are pouring out of the centre. Yet this rhetoric about what changes should occur is usually accompanied by a deafening silence about how they should occur. It is easy to issue new directives and

policies, however actions speak louder than words; the lack of adequately resourced programs which will enable schools to implement change appears to reflect a lack of genuine commitment to them by the government. The consequence of this will be very little real change" (Mitchell et al quoted in Ingvarson, Laurence 1987, P.170).

Perhaps the local silence is another of the political constraints placed on Secondary Education: The Future. Education, as Ingvarson points out, is such a large scale operation that adequate planning and support for change is expensive (op cit) The intention for matters of detail to be carried by supporting materials was there from the beginning (Education Department documents 1986-87). Presumably the general statements on how the principles of the policy document were to be implemented was to be communicated by such documentation. No mention of such a plan for this work was made at the planning meetings attended by the author of this study during 1986 and no suggestion that details of implementation plans be made available were made as responses during the discussion phase. Some guiding principles with regard to implementation are useful, even essential in considering how to move from the policy document to practice. The paper Implementation Framework 1987-88, ready for distribution five months after the release of the policy document, begins to clarify the process of implementation and shares the planning already underway at a state and regional level. This paper stresses the need for collaborative planning and notes that schools are the focal point for change. Some points are made about the change process, namely,

- " . Tasks and goals must be manageable and realistic;
- . Change takes considerable time and energy;
- . Managers have a key role in providing leadership so that their visible and sustained commitments is crucial;
- . Educational decision-making must involve consultation within the community;
- . Plans must be monitored and reviewed regularly; and

- . Change is a learning process for both individuals and organisations that requires patience and tolerance".
(P.4)

The links between Secondary Education: The Future and Schools Board policy changes are made more explicit in this paper and the partnership between the statewide Administration and services, Regional offices and schools is made clearly and an outline of the implementation considerations for each group are listed. Overall it is a clear, informative document making explicit the system support for the proposed changes.

System Support - a learning partnership

The research indicates that the support of central administrators is critical for change in district practice. McLaughlin comments,

"The amount of interest, commitment, and support evidenced by principal actors had a major influence on the prospects for successful project implementation. In particular, the attitudes and interest of central administrators in effect provided a "signal" to project participants as to how seriously they should take project goals and how hard they should work to achieve them. Unless participants perceived that change agent projects represented a school and district educational priority, teachers were often unwilling to put in the extra time and emotional investment necessary for successful implementation". (1976, P.341).

Chief executive officers it appears should show support, knowledge and understanding of the realities of attempting to put change into practice. The notion of partnership between chief executives in the three levels of the Tasmanian system in the process of implementation is an important aspect of the Framework paper.

In the U.K. the HMI enquiry which followed the 1977 publication of Curriculum II-16 also stressed the notion of partnership between

HMI, Local Authorities' administrators and school personnel. A partnership evolved in this enquiry in which,

"all were at different times and to different degrees, learners as well as leaders. Action came as a result of the intervention and co-operation of the three groups of partners, no one partner could have achieved as much by acting alone". (HMI 1983, P.5)

This is an important admission. In an implementation as complex and multi-faceted as that proposed in Tasmania all the people involved, whatever their status, must see themselves as learners. Despite the now massive literature on implementation and the change process there is still much we do not know. There is certainly no blue print. Fullan makes the point, "If we constantly remind ourselves that educational change is a learning experience for the adults involved (teachers, administrators, parents etc) as well as for children, we will be going a long way in understanding the dynamics of the factors of change ..." (1982b P.55).

Mistakes need to be admitted and learnt from. For instance the Frameworks paper, does not mention in its summary of events since February 1987, that the regional support groups who were advised late in 1986 that they would have a continuing function in the process, received no communication at all from central administration in 1987. These early regional constituencies might have provided consultative advice on the development of an implementation plan during Term I 1987. The membership of each group represented teachers, S.M.'s, Vice Principals and in the northern region two principals. These people had indicated a willingness to collaborate in in-service activities. They had formed a partnership. Dumping them is precisely the sort of experience which breeds hostility and cynicism. Seymour Sarason wrote in 1971 that the pre-history of implementation is vital, particularly if feelings of dissatisfaction are involved. He noted sardonically that, "the more things change on the surface, the more conditions remain basically the same" (P.219) Fullan

summed up the research eleven years later by commenting that, "the more the teachers or others have had negative experiences with previous implementation attempts in the district or elsewhere, the more cynical or apathetic they will be about the next change presented regardless of the merit of the new idea or program" (1982b P.63).

Anxiety and Uncertainty

Cynicism and apathy are not the only emotions engendered by complex and broadly based policy such as Secondary Renewal. The TCE Schools Board proposals have a short time frame (from the perspective of a teacher particularly) requiring Grade 9 syllabuses to be ready for 1989*. Changes to assessment and incorporating the competencies into classroom practice, two changes which link Secondary Education: The Future and the TCE require that the well worn shoes of practice, to which I referred in chapter 6, be cast aside. This involves considerable personal cost for teachers. House puts it this way:

"The personal costs of trying something new are greatly underestimated. The teacher has acquired his teaching skills laboriously over a long period of time. These skills may not be superb, but he knows how to operate with them - how to get by ... Costs of acquiring the new skills are high. The amount of time and energy for relearning can be tremendous, ... Furthermore - the crowning disincentive - there is seldom any conclusive evidence that the innovation is really worth much in the classroom" (1976, P.339).

At the level of classroom practice and school management the changes recommended by Secondary Education: The Future and the Schools Board are just the kind to cost highly. Fullan and Pomfret could have been writing about the local policy document when they wrote that many change proposals,

* This timeframe was amended at the end of 1987.

"have as their main objective an increase in student autonomy and control over their classroom learning situations ... But the student-teacher role relationship must also change. Teachers must think of students as being potentially capable of desiring, needs and exercising more autonomy. Students must think of teachers more as guides than as directors of learning. Behaviourally to select just a few of many possible indicators, teachers may be required to adopt and use new pedagogical techniques such as different class groupings, new authority relationships with students, experiential and peer-based learning situations and the like. Students will be expected to ask more questions of the teacher ... It also shows that addressing the process of role change should be part and parcel of the process of curriculum change" (1977, P.337).

Role changes necessitated by the complex processes indicated in this overview develop high degrees of anxiety and stress in teachers and senior staff, including Principals. Principals are being asked to manage the change process in schools and to cast off the well worn shoes of school maintenance for the risky business of educational leadership. They too experience anxiety. In Fullan's terms the meaning Principals and teachers, as principal actors, make of Secondary Renewal is of critical importance. "But the theory of meaning says that individual concerns come with the territory; addressing these concerns is educational change" (1982b, P.295). That is, the crux of change is how all the individuals involved come to grips with the reality of the change situation. The process of implementation for Secondary Renewal must acknowledge that,

"all real change involves loss, anxiety, and struggle. Failure to recognise this phenomenon as natural and inevitable has meant that we tend to ignore important aspects of change and misinterpret others". (Ibid, P.25).

Inviting teachers and principals to make changes in their classrooms, changes of materials, teaching styles, school decision making, organisation etc we must seriously take into account, it is argued, the uncertainty which will follow. Change

"represents a serious personal and collective experience characterised by ambivalence and uncertainty, and if the change works out it can result in a sense of mastery, accomplishment, and professional growth. The anxieties of uncertainty and the joys of mastery are central to the subjective meaning of educational change, and to success or failure - facts which have not been recognised or appreciated in most attempts at reform (Ibid, P.26).

Hence it follows that the steps one selects for putting change into practice must be critical if uncertainty is to be translated into the achievement of a sense of mastery. The recent industrial situation in Tasmania appears to indicate that the level of anxiety across the system has been grossly underestimated.

An Evolutionary Process

Understanding the humanness of what is involved in the change process should help us be comfortable with the view that implementation is not a rational linear matter. Documents such as Implementation Framework in their effort to be helpful and lucid nevertheless communicate by virtue of the very limitations of print technology a tacit message of rationality, of inevitable linear processes. The muddle behind the scenes is much more the reality. Documentation on implementation and change has of recent years acknowledged the muddle more readily. (Berman, Paul in Lehming and Kane, 1981).

One delightful and perceptive analogy is drawn by Eleanor Farrar, John Descantis and David Cohen (1980). They liken centrally initiated innovation programs to a large lawn party: "All the guests have different ideas about what, if anything, they want the

party to be, and what they want to get from it" (P.81). Certainly a possible view of Secondary Renewal! Their argument is influenced in part by Karl Weick's influential paper (1976) which describes school systems as "loosely coupled". In local terms this means that the State Education Department and Regional administrations are loosely coupled organizations in the sense that teachers work more or less autonomously from other teachers and administrators and that schools work more or less autonomously from each other and from Regional office administration. This leads Farrar et al to a notion of implementation as non-linear and evolutionary made up of "complex ad hoc processes in which goals, and procedures for achieving them are revised in the light of experience" (P.80). This supports an earlier synthesis of research by Fullan and Pomfret (1977) which emphasises "the halting, interdependent, incremental nature of planned organisational change ... from this perspective the innovation is open to continuous development and redefinition" (P.364) and is supported by recent work by Matthew Miles (1987). Miles discusses the evolutionary approach in a recent paper and notes that managing a change process, such as Secondary Renewal involves living with ambiguity and the need to fight off pressures for tight planning. He remarks "being open and evolutionary is thus an intelligent rather than a mindless, expedient stance" (1987, P.14).

Farrar et al even goes on to question the use of the very term "implementation" which brings with it connotations of precision and rationality, putting into practice, or "installing a well defined blue print rather than adapting a malleable entity" (P.96). They maintain that it is "wise to refer to a continuing process of policy making in which various actors press their varied visions of policy" (P.83). According to their argument and that summarised by Fullan and Pomfret a centrally devised policy document (forget the rhetoric of extensive consultation in the drafting stage) like Secondary Education: The Future is likely to evolve as it is being established. Viewing implementation as evolution helps central organisers see that what appears as irrational resistance is in fact natural and logical. What

emerges from the literature is that statewide and regional planning such as Tasmania has embarked upon with Secondary Renewal is extremely difficult to do well and is inadequate as currently practiced. (Berman 1981 in Lehming and Kane, P.269) "There are many ways to fail and few ways to succeed" (Ibid P.270) is a timely warning. Berman explains that even successful processes do not seem robust but rather "consist of fragile concatenations of events, people, and ideas at the right times in the right places". This delicate "assembly" is easily collapsed, as the local industrial intervention clearly demonstrates. It is difficult too with this fragile evolutionary process to know what will count as successful implementation of Secondary Education: The Future. Farrar et al reply that there is "no simple and no single answer" (P.97).

Staff development

The slow uncertain business of adult learning is obviously central to the process of Secondary Renewal. Time and time again in the responses to the Discussion Paper respondents asked for or commented on the essential role of staff or professional development (Education Department documents 1986-87). Fullan provides a definition of implementation which states:

"that implementation or change in practice is not a thing, a set of materials, an announcement, or a delivery date; rather, it is a process of learning and resocialization over a period of time involving people and relations among people in order to alter practice." (1982a, P.254 emphasis in original)

It follows that staff development and participation is central to the implementation process. "Educational change involves learning how to do something new. It is for this reason that if any single factor is crucial to change it is professional development (Fullan, 1982b, P.257). In discussing staff development Fullan notes that there is too much well-intentioned "ad-hocism" in educational reform, too many segmented solutions, unconnected or

unintegrated with their systemic realities (like the lawn party). The literature argues that staff development needs to be better co-ordinated. Lawrence Ingvarson is blunt,

"Talk about improving the quality of education is mere humbug unless in-service education moves from the marginal status of a cottage industry to become a central component of system-level planning and co-ordination of all resources relevant to the support of innovation, school improvement and professional development ... we have already a good idea of how to conduct in-service education well, but it is difficult to put our knowledge into practice because there is a lack of 'fit', a lack of integration, between in-service education and planning for change". (1987, P164)

Certainly there is little indication in the 1987 Tasmanian Education Department Strategy Plan of the central importance of staff development and as recently as October staff development officers, including the author of this paper, tried, in a re-writing of part of the Strategy Plan to accomodate Secondary Renewal, to make the centrality of staff development more explicit.

Ingvarson provides three major factors for the lack of integration between in-service education and planning for change.

- "1. Responsibility for in-service is often widely diffused, low in the bureaucratic hierarchy and isolated from major policy initiatives in areas such as curriculum;
2. resources allocated to professional development reflect a profound lack of understanding of the complex and long-term nature of educational change; and
3. inadequate attention is given to the development of conditions within schools which provide the leadership, collegiality, time and organisation required for professional development to become a routine part of the school's day to day operation". (Ingvarson, 1987 P.165)

This could be a perceptive analysis of the Tasmanian situation. Ingvarson continues by discussing the context of constraints in which in-service is embedded and notes that the major factor limiting the effectiveness of in-service is the same as that noted by Fullan in 1982, that is, the lack of co-ordination of in-service with other components within the external support structures for schools. (Ibid P.167). In Tasmania it is urgent that we attend to achieving just this co-ordination. Central co-ordination must focus on long term partnership's between central/regional agencies and self-renewing schools.

The literature is full of what in-service education should and should not do. In summarising the research Fullan argues that pre-implementation training does not work and one-shot workshops prior and even during implementation are not very helpful (But still we try them!) McLaughlin states succinctly, "One shot training, or training heavily concentrated at the beginning of the project was not effective" (1976, P.344) It appears to be particularly important to plan for follow-up support for ideas and practices and follow-up evaluation. The problem, Fullan argues, is that most forms of in-service training are not designed to provide the on-going, interactive, cumulative learning necessary to develop new conceptions, skills and behaviours. The important point is to integrate in-service work into district-wide plans for integrating new programs. Fullan writes,

"Implementation, whether it is voluntary or imposed is none other than a process of resocialization. The foundation of resocialization is interaction. Learning by doing, concrete role models, meetings with resource consultants and fellow implementors, practice of the behaviour, the fits and starts of cumulative, ambivalent gradual self-confidence all constitute a process of coming to see the meaning of change more clearly." (Fullan, 1982b, P.617).

Vital to the process are concrete teacher-specific training activities, ongoing continuous assistance and support during the process of implementation and regular meetings with peers and others. "...processes of sustained interaction and staff development are crucial regardless of what the change is concerned with. People can and do change but it requires social energy" (Ibid P.67). The need for concrete activities as a focus for implementation is emphasised also by McLaughlin who writes,

"Staff development and training activities were a crucial part of successful implementation ... with few exceptions, visits by outside consultants and other outside "experts" were not considered particularly helpful. Where outside experts were considered useful, their participation was concrete and involved working closely with project teachers in their classrooms or in "hands-on" workshops. The sessions participants thought most useful were regular meetings of the project staff with local resource personnel in which ideas were shared, problems discussed, and support given ... Concrete, inquiry-based training activities scheduled regularly over the course of the project implementation provide a means for this developmental process to occur. (1976, P.345).

The cases of successful professional development which Fullan examined consisted of systems of peer-based interaction and feedback among teachers combined with external assistance. He argues that large numbers of people will be affected only when the system of support and interaction becomes established as a regular normal part of the on-going work of schools. "In short, there is a serious change at stake" (Fullan 1982b, P.287) Fullan is talking about self-renewing schools.

The Hargreaves committee in their report Improving Secondary Schools include a statement on implementation in which they too stress the importance of staff development in schools. The ILEA committee made very specific recommendations, as we have seen in

the earlier chapters of this study, nevertheless they acknowledge that even explicitness is insufficient as a guide to future action. They understand that the burden of implementation falls on schools which are extremely busy places. Time and energy for implementation are difficult to find. The committee argues for the need to devise a systematic plan for implementation, "one which is coherent and co-ordinated and which recognises the autonomy of each individual school." (P.122). They propose a five year plan whereby schools can learn from each other and the committee stress in terms stronger than those in 5.4 of Secondary Education: The Future that all schools "should assign as the highest priority to the development or improvement of a policy for staff development, not least because a teaching force of quality combined with high morale is the essential basis for a programme of school improvement" (P.123 my emphasis).

Time

The notion of a coherent five year plan within which schools can work out specifics is a helpful practical framework. Secondary Renewal has given no specifics about time scales except those related to the Schools Board proposals and they strike teachers as unreasonably short. There is never enough time for those involved in the process of implementation. "Time perspective is one of the most neglected aspects of the implementation process. (Fullan, 1982b, P.68). Too often, it appears, the enthusiastic advocate of educational reform is impatient to bring it about. This results in "hasty decisions, unrealistic time-lines, and inadequate logistical support during implementation because due dates arrive more quickly than problems can be resolved" (Op Cit). While an enthusiast for reform might desire quick action House reminds us that, most teachers see innovations occurring in an evolutionary way as "slow evolutionary improvement within the profession" (1979, P.12) Attempting to rush through change adds to the teachers' burdens but on the other hand open ended time-lines, such as exist with the Secondary Education: The Future part of Secondary Renewal can create awesome ambiguity about that is expected. Fullan warns,

"There probably never will be adequate time - it costs too much and there is so much to do. So we should face the fact that we are talking about obtaining small amounts of time on some regular basis ... The gravity of the goal should be recognised. Until some time for change becomes a regular part of the job we should not expect substantial changes in practice to occur" (Ibid, P.293).

The need to find this time has been part of the recent industrial dispute.

Self-Renewing Schools

All the aspects discussed so far: the nature of the policy document Secondary Education: The Future; wide-ranging practical implications which flow from the document; the difficulty of putting reliance on supporting materials however excellent they may be; the need for an implementation framework which shows system support for change; the inevitability of anxiety; the growing understanding that change is a complex evolutionary process; the primary place of staff development in the process and the problem of finding adequate time contribute to an understanding that the school is the appropriate focus for change. Real change must happen in classrooms.Sizer repeats over and over again in his book Horace's Compromise, "learning is a humane process ... the game of school learning is won or lost in classrooms" (1984, P.4-5). The HMI remark, "If nothing happens in the classrooms the curriculum ideas remain paper exercises" (1983, P.34). And as we noted earlier Goodlad contends, "the up-grading of classroom life is best done on a school-by-school basis (1984, P.129). Further on he maintains that to achieve self renewal schools "must become largely self-directing" (1984, P276)

Schools tend to be conservative places noted for their stability and even inertia in the face of change. (Sarason, 1971, Morrish, 1976, Joyce, 1983, Goodlad, 1984 and Boomer, 1987). However while schools need to maintain their stability they also need to be open and able to change. Research from the early 70's, particularly that led and influenced by John Goodlad (Bentzen et al 1974; Goodlad,

1975, 1983, 1987; Sirotnik and Oakes, 1981; and Joyce 1983) has maintained that school improvement occurs when the process is established as part of the regular business of educational life. Schools become learning communities and self renewing.

All major research on innovation and school effectiveness shows that the principal strongly influences the likelihood of change. As we saw in chapter 6 Secondary Education: The Future made no comment on the role of the principal. Research indicates that most principals do not play instructional leadership roles. Ross claims, "It is a seeming fact of administrative life that the curricular decision-making of individual classroom teachers is impervious to the impact of the Principal" (1980, P.219) Ross is arguing that principals should interact more with teachers on curricular decision-making matters to facilitate the breakdown of the isolation of teachers.

More recent studies of leadership emphasise the moral responsibilities of a leader to create moral order (Greenfield Thomas 1986 and Greenfield William, 1987) and Eleanor Farrar in a recent paper summarizes the essential leadership skills as:

- "1. The ability to articulate a philosophy for the school and a "vision" of what the school should be like;
2. the ability to convince others to work for that vision;
3. the willingness to share responsibility for school management by increasing the authority of others;
4. strong "coping skills", which include the ability to make decisions and act quickly to solve implementation problems, and
5. the ability and the confidence to manage the schools' external environment - a sort of political fearlessness to take risks" (1987, P.3).

These are more complex responsibilities than the comfortable maintenance of the status quo. Demands for risk taking produces anxiety as we noted earlier in this chapter. Fullan observed that,

"The subjective world of principals is such that many of them suffer the same problems in implementing a new role as facilitator of change as do teachers in implementing a new teaching role: what the principal should do specifically to manage change at the school level is a complex affair for which the principal has little preparation" (1982b, P.71).

To facilitate the development of self-renewing schools appropriate in-service for principals is an urgent priority.

In chapter 4 I remarked the need for staff discussion on the curriculum. A self-renewing school must systematically and deliberately set up mechanisms for the adults to work together - planning, debating, discussing, acting, comparing etc (Bentzen 1974). Goodlad noted in 1975,

"The school is a highly promising focal point for change. But it requires a process, at the very heart of which is self dialogue, by means of which it becomes responsive to its needs and to ways of fulfilling them better." (P.184).

These ideas overlap with comments made in chapter 6 on collegiality. The first point writers make in investigating what makes change work at the teacher level is the primacy of personal contact. Hence peer relationships within a school are vital.

"Change involves resocialization. Interaction is the primary basis for social learning. New meanings, new behaviour, new skills depend significantly on whether teachers are working as isolated individuals or exchanging ideas, support, and positive feelings about their work." (Fullan, 1982b, P.72)

Research indicates clearly that the quality of working relationships among teachers is strongly related to implementation. House writes

"Personal contact is essential in innovation because it provides the opportunity for two-way questioning, persuading and intense interaction that must accompany radical changes in behaviour" (1979 P.4)

Growing out of positive personal contact and what the literature describes, as we have seen in chapter 6 as collegiality (open communication, trust, support, help etc) teachers frequently form advocacy groups for change. House writes "advocacy groups are essential for securing resources and providing social rewards" (1979, P.5). If a teacher as advocater becomes sensitive to the change process he or she can become one of the most powerful forces of change within a self renewing school. Ingvarson writes, "Teachers were unequivocal in their opinion that it is contact with other teachers that is of greatest value to them in gaining and using teaching ideas" (1982, P.92). Focused teacher interaction is essential to large-scale successful change and the research argues that teachers need to help each other diagnose their own methods or problems. As Ingvarson points out this is,

"a totally different kind of in-service education. It is at this point apparently that in-service education needs to meet and support teachers in their own efforts to adapt to changing circumstances. ...Teachers appear to be saying that what they want most are those in-service approaches which open up the profession to greater opportunities for learning from itself, approaches which enable concrete experience to be shared and which give recognition to the profession's own expertise" (Ibid, P.95 my emphasis).

Staff development activities would need to be a vital aspect of the self renewing school. Staff development within a school, where the teachers themselves are experts, develops a common

language, and forges common understandings and goals. Fullan makes a similar point to Ingvarson when he says, "the more teachers can review and interact concerning their own practices, the more they will be able to bring about improvements that they themselves identify as necessary" (Fullan 1982b, P.122) That is teachers will generate improvements in an on-going way within schools.

Focused teacher interaction such as Goodlad's extensive study argues for requires frequent and regular staff meetings.

"More time for teacher meetings, planning, skill-training, and trying out the change in classrooms should be built into the weekly schedule, and more imaginative ways of creating additional time should and can be found" (Fullan, 1982b, P.128)

The implications for school organisation have been noted in earlier chapters of this study. However a couple of specific points may be made here. A practical implication for self renewing schools might be that the organisation of senior staff based on subject leadership may need to be re-thought. The sort of focussed teacher interaction referred to above may be better lead and managed if the responsibilities of senior staff are re-deployed. For instance there may be a need for senior positions to co-ordinate across subject boundaries in areas such as language, health etc. (refer Areas of Knowledge and Experience in Chapter 4 of this study). Other senior positions may be needed to co-ordinate across the curriculum matters such as Staff Development, Assessment, Records of Achievement and Pastoral Care. Different priorities for timetabling other than subject demands may need to be made for schools to become self renewing. In relation to Fullan's comment above specific time for staff development should be built in to the on-going organisation of schools.

Self Evaluation

The final factor which is vital for self renewing schools and for the whole process of Secondary Renewal is the ability of schools to be self evaluative. By this I mean to appraise where they are, what they are doing and how they are doing it in order to make purposeful decisions about improvement. Evaluation may take many forms. It might be a whole school review such as several Tasmanian secondary schools have undertaken in recent years. Such grand scale evaluation frequently exhausts participants to such an extent that moving on from what they learn appears too difficult. Hugo McCann's portrait of Rokeby High School (1986) has proved a rich, perceptive and useful description of the school facilitating decision making. Stewart Purkey describing how he would handle a school improvement program suggests asking a leadership team to develop a cultural portrait of the school's culture. He believes "change without such important information is simply mindless activity" (1986 P.18). The point is that self renewing schools must look honestly at what is by engaging in critical enquiry before moving to subsequent evolutionary planning in the school.

The learning which has emerged out of Goodlad's massive longitudinal study of schools also recommends self evaluation for schools as well as for classrooms (refer Chapter 6 of this study). In an article by Kenneth Sirotnik and Jennie Oakes (1981) it is maintained that schools should learn as much as they can about themselves before attempting to define problems and arrive at solutions, "information before action" is their slogan. What they are advocating is a comprehensive formative evaluation which they call contextual appraisal - a two fold interactive process of description and judgement. In the U.K. the HMI enquiry referred to above also favoured the term "appraisal". This proved to be a more complex and difficult process than is often appreciated. A variety of methods were used: agreed checklists, observation of lessons, recording and playing back of lessons, observing lessons in other schools and most notably innovative of all, lesson evaluating schedules for use not only by teachers but also by

pupils. (H.M.I. 1983). Despite the difficulties the aim is for evaluation to become the process of rigorous self-examination, in fact the process of school renewal itself - intrinsic to the work life of schools (Sirotnik, K. in Goodlad 1987, P.42).

In England Helen Simons (1980 and 1985) agrees with this aim. Nevertheless she points out that the matter of self evaluation of schools is in itself a major innovation which directly confronts three major organisational values of schools - privacy, territory and hierarchy. It therefore requires fundamental institutional change (Simons, 1985, P.4). The matter of beginning self evaluation then is no trivial matter. Perhaps a self renewing school which aims to sustain self evaluation in the long term should start in a small way building out to encompass other goals as the evolutionary process gets underway. Any one of the issues in Secondary Education: The Future provides a starting point and all inextricably link together in the practical domain of school life. The more urgent priorities because of the Schools Board agenda are likely to be assessment, Records of Achievement and incorporating the competencies. Assessment has already been found to be a successful way into School Renewal. In Manchester they found that,

"a concentration on assessment encourages a reappraisal of every aspect of a school's aims, curriculum, methodology, organization, staffing and its relationships with parents and the community at large. As such, it can be exhilarating, challenging, or disruptive, depending on the ability of the institution to cope with the conclusions which emerge" (Sutton, 1986, P.52).

Kemmis et al argue that it is important for the school to decide its own starting point. They believe schools should be socially critical research communities. The school uses action research as its method - a collaborative research for improving its own practices, its own understandings, and its own situation. Within this framework of an approach where to start,

"is a tactical question about where people are willing to begin, about the issues that concern them in their own practice and the organisation of the school, about the problems to be faced in initiating and maintaining the process as a collaborative enterprise, and about where improvements can actually be achieved." (1983 P.17-18).

While a small group might begin this process the aim will be to eventually involve the whole school community. Some schools will need to heed Sarason's warning and "decide to start nowhere" (1971, P.217) because the minimal conditions for change do not exist. In this case schools need to consider building the conditions on which to begin to change. If they can do this they have become self renewing schools.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSION

Secondary Education: The Future may be a brief policy document but the succinct summary of principles guiding Tasmanian Education policy into the new century draws from a mass of literature on secondary education both in Australia and overseas. It is an outstanding achievement to have compressed so many complex ideas into such a readable document. Because of the condensation of ideas, political constraints and in places because the document was exploring new ground (for instance on the competencies) there is not always the clarity some will seek as they attempt to follow through with action in schools. Nevertheless Secondary Education: The Future is an inspirational statement of the present significant ideas on secondary education.

The notable gaps in the document are: a statement on values; learning theory; the role of the principal; the relationship between the school and its communities; and a stronger position on the role secondary education must play in maintaining our democratic state.

Each school and each individual must make meaning of the document. Each school must evolve a plan for self-renewal. The document offers a profound challenge to secondary schools. Each school will need to generate the human energy, imagination and patience necessary for secondary renewal. The system must co-ordinate its staff development resources to support schools in the human interaction and long-term support necessary for change. Participative democracy will be needed in all sections of the educational community. All involved in this evolutionary process must assume the role of learner the better to face the uncertainties of tomorrow.

The writing of this study has been a rich learning experience. The product touches only the surface of most topics. Nevertheless I hope it makes some contribution to the process of school renewal.

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